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Wm. WINTERBOTHAM.

AN

HISTORICAL

GEOGRAPHICAL, COMMERCIAL,

AND

PHILOSOPHICAL

VIEW

OF THE

AMERICAN UNITED STATES,

AND OF THE

EUROPEAN SETTLEMENTS

IN

AMERICA AND THE WEST-INDIES.

BY

W. WINTERBOTHAM.

IN FOUR VOLUMES.

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HISTORY

HISTORY

OF THE

Britiſh Settlements in America.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

THE Britiſh dominion in America extending over a tract of country called, for the purpoſe of diſtinction, by the general name of Britiſh America, comprehends the vaſt and unknown extent of country, bounded ſouth, by the United States of America, and the Atlantic ocean; eaſt, by the ſame ocean and Davis's Straits, which divide it from Greenland; extending north to the northern limits of the Hudſon's Bay charter; and weſtward to an unknown extent—lying between 42° 30′ and 7° north latitude; and between 50° and 105° weſt long. from Greenwich; and between 25° eaſt and 30° weſt long. from Philadelphia.

It is divided into four provinces, viz. 1. Upper Canada;—2. Lower Canada, to which is annexed New Britain, or the country lying round Hudſon's Bay, and the Iſland of Cape Breton;—3. New Brunſwick;—and 4. Nova Scotia, to which is annexed the Iſland of St. John's.—Beſides theſe there is the Iſland of Newfoundland, which is governed by the admiral for the time being, and two lieutenant governors, who reſide at Placentia and St. John's.——The troops ſtationed at Newfoundland, however, are ſubject to the orders of the Governor-general of the four Britiſh Provinces.—Of each of theſe provinces our intention is to enter into a brief deſcription.

PROVINCES

OF

UPPER AND LOWER CANADA.

SITUATION, EXTENT, AND BOUNDARIES.

The provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, conſtituted by act of parliament in 1791, comprehend the territory heretofore called Canada, or the Province of Quebec; ſituated between 42° 30′ and 50° north latitude, and 61° and 81° weſt longitude from London; or 14° eaſt, and 6° weſt from Philadelphia. Their length is about ſix hundred miles, and their breadth five hundred and fifty.

Theſe provinces are bounded on the north, by New Britain; on the eaſt, by the Gulph of St. Lawrence, and part of the Province of New Brunſwick; on the ſouth-eaſt and ſouth, by the Diſtrict of Main, New Hampſhire, Vermont, New York, and the lakes: the weſtern boundary is undefined. The Province of Upper Canada is the ſame as what is commonly called the Upper Country. It lies north of the great lakes, between the latitudes of 42° 30′ and 50°, and is ſeparated from New York by the river St. Lawrence, here called the Cataraqui, and the Lakes Ontario and Erie.

Lower Canada lies on both ſides the river St. Lawrence, between 61° and 71° W. lon. from London; and 45° and 52° N. lat. and is bounded ſouth by New Brunſwick, Maine, New Hampſhire, Vermont, and New York; and weſt by Upper Canada.

The line which divides Upper from Lower Canada commences at a ſtone boundary, on the north bank of the lake St. Francis, at the cove, weſt of *Pointe au Boudet*, in the limit between the townſhip of Lancaſter and the Seigneurie of New Longuevil, running along the ſaid limit in the direction of north thirty-four degrees weſt, to the weſternmoſt angle of the ſaid Seigneurie of New Longuevil; thence along the north-weſtern boundary of the Seigneurie of Vandreuil, running north, twenty-five degrees eaſt, until it ſtrikes the Ottawas river; to aſcend the ſaid river into the lake Tomiſcanning; and from the head of the ſaid lake by a line drawn due north, until it ſtrikes the boundary line of Hudſon's Bay, or New Britain. Upper Canada, to include all the territory to the weſtward and ſouthward of the ſaid line, to the utmoſt extent of the country known by the name of Canada.

AIR AND CLIMATE.

The climate is not very different from that of the New England States; but as it is farther from the ſea, and more to the northward than moſt of them, the winters are more ſevere. Winter continues with ſuch ſeverity from December to April, as that the largeſt rivers are frozen over, and the ſnow lies commonly from four to ſix feet deep during the whole of that time. But the air is ſo ſerene and clear, and the inhabitants ſo well defended againſt the cold, that this ſeaſon is neither unhealthy nor unpleaſant. The ſprings open ſuddenly, and vegetation is ſurpriſingly rapid. The ſummer is delightful, except that a part of it is extremely hot.

HISTORY OF ITS SETTLEMENT, &c.

Canada was undoubtedly diſcovered by Sebaſtian CABOT, the famous Italian adventurer, who ſailed under a commiſſion from Henry VII. But though the Engliſh monarch did not think proper to make any uſe of this diſcovery, the French quickly attempted it; we have an account of their fiſhing for cod on the banks of Newfoundland, and along the ſea coaſt of Canada, in the beginning of the ſixteenth century. About the year 1506, one Denys, a Frenchman, drew a map of the gulph of St. Lawrence; and two years after, one Aubort, a ſhip-maſter of Dieppe, carried over to France ſome of the natives of Canada. As the new country, however, did not promiſe the ſame amazing quantities of gold and ſilver produced by Mexico and Peru, the French for ſome years neglected the diſcovery. At laſt, in the year 1523, Francis I. a ſenſible and enterpriſing prince, ſent four ſhips, under the command of Verazani, a Florentine, to proſecute diſcoveries in that country. The particulars of this man's firſt expedition are not known. All we can learn is, that he returned to France, and next year he undertook a ſecond. As he approached the coaſt, he met with a violent ſtorm; however, he came ſo near as to perceive the natives on the ſhore, making friendly ſigns to him to land. This being found impracticable, by reaſon of the ſurf upon the coaſt, one of the ſailors threw himſelf into the ſea; but, endeavouring to ſwim back to the ſhip, a ſurge threw him on ſhore without ſigns of life. He was, however, treated by the natives with ſuch care and humanity, that he recovered his ſtrength, and was allowed to ſwim back to the ſhip, which immediately returned to France. This is all we know of Verazani's ſecond expedition. He undertook a third, but was no more heard of, and it was thought that he and all his company periſhed before he could form any colony.

In 1534, one Jaques Cartier, of St. Maloes, ſet ſail under a commiſſion from the French king, and on the 10th of May arrived at Cape Bonaviſta in Newfoundland. He had with him two ſmall ſhips beſides the one in which he ſailed. He cruiſed along the coaſts of that iſland, on which he diſcovered inhabitants, probably the Eſkimaux. He landed in ſeveral places along the coaſt of the Gulf, and took poſſeſſion of the country in the king's name. On his return, he was again ſent out with a commiſſion, and a pretty large force; he returned in 1535, and paſſed the winter at St. Croix; but the ſeaſon proved ſo ſevere, that he and his companions muſt have died of the ſcurvy, had they not, by the advice of the natives, made uſe of the decoction of the tops and bark of the white pines. As Cartier, however, could produce neither gold nor ſilver, all that he could ſay about the utility of the ſettlement was diſregarded: and in 1540, he was obliged to become pilot to one M. Roberval, who was by the French king appointed viceroy of Canada, and who ſailed from France with five veſſels. Arriving at the Gulf of St. Lawrence, they built a fort; and Cartier was left to command the garriſon in it, while Roberval returned to France for additional recruits to his new ſettlement. At laſt, having embarked in 1549, with a great number of adventurers, neither he nor any of his followers were heard of more.

This fatal accident ſo greatly diſcouraged the court of France, that for fifty years no meaſures were taken for ſupplying with neceſſaries the ſettlers that were left. At laſt Henry IV. appointed the Marquis de la Roche lieutenant-general of Canada and the neighbouring countries. In 1598 he landed on the iſle of Sable, which he abſurdly thought to be a proper place for a ſettlement, though it was without any port, and without product except briars. Here he left about forty malefactors, the refuſe of the French jails. After cruizing for ſome time on the coaſt of Nova Scotia, without being able to relieve theſe poor wretches, he returned to France, where he died of a broken heart. His colony muſt have periſhed, had not a French ſhip been wrecked on the iſland, and a few ſheep driven upon it at the ſame time. With the boards of the ſhip they erected huts; and while the ſheep laſted they lived on them, feeding afterwards on fiſh. Their clothes wearing out, they made coats of ſeal-ſkins; and in this miſerable condition they ſpent ſeven years, when Henry ordered them to be brought to France. The king had the curioſity to ſee them in their ſeal-ſkin dreſſes, and was ſo moved with their appearance, that he forgave them all their offences, and gave each of them fifty crowns to begin the world anew.

In 1600, one Chauvin, a commander in the French navy, attended by a merchant of St. Malo, called *Pontgrave*, made a voyage to Canada, from whence he returned with a very profitable quantity of furs. Next year he repeated the voyage with the ſame good fortune, but died while he was preparing for a third. The many ſpecimens of profit to be made by the Canadian trade, at laſt induced the public to think favourably of it. An armament was equipped, and the command of it given to Pontgrave, with powers to extend his diſcoveries up the river St. Lawrence. He ſailed in 1603, having in his company Samuel Champlain, who had been a captain in the navy, and was a man of parts and ſpirit. It was not, however, till the year 1608, that the colony was fully eſtabliſhed. This was accompliſhed by founding the city of Quebec, which from that time commenced the capital of all the ſettlements in Canada. The colony, however, for many years continued in a low way, and was often in danger of being totally exterminated by the Indians. As the particulars of theſe wars, however, could neither be entertaining, nor indeed intelligible, to many of our readers, we chooſe to omit them, and in general obſerve, that the French not only concluded a permanent peace with the Indians, but ſo much ingratiated themſelves with them, that they could, with the greateſt eaſe, prevail upon them at any time to murder and ſcalp the Engliſh in their ſettlements. Theſe practices had a conſiderable ſhare in bringing about a war with France, when the whole country was conquered by the Britiſh in 1761; and at the treaty of Paris, in 1763, was ceded, by France, to the crown of England, to whom it has ever ſince belonged.*

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, PRODUCE, &c.

Though the climate is cold, and the winters long and tedious, the ſoil in general is very good, and in many parts extremely fertile; producing many different ſorts of grains, fruits, and vegetables. The meadow grounds, which are well watered, yield excellent graſs, and breed vaſt numbers of great and ſmall cattle. The uncultivated parts are a continued wood, compoſed of prodigious large and lofty trees, of which there is ſuch a variety of ſpecies, that even of thoſe who have taken moſt pains to know them, there is not perhaps one that can tell half the number. Canada produces, among others, two ſorts of pines, the white, and the red; four ſorts of firs; two ſorts of cedar and oak,

* For a more particular hiſtory of this country the reader is referred to Charlevoix's hiſtory of it; to the Encyclopedia Britannica; articles, Canada, Quebec, and America, No. 195, 200, and 207.

the

the white and the red; the male and female maple; three ſorts of aſh trees, the free, the mungrel, and the baſtard; three ſorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the ſoft, and the ſmooth; vaſt numbers of beech trees and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, ſome of which made out of one piece will contain twenty perſons; others are made of the bark; the different pieces of which they ſew together with the inner rind, and daub over the ſeams with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter reſembling pitch, to prevent their leaking; the ribs of theſe canoes are made of boughs of trees. In the hollow elms, the bears and wild cats take up their lodging from November to April. The country produces alſo a vaſt variety of other vegetables, particularly tobacco, which thrives well. Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and many excellent ones of iron have been diſcovered. It hath alſo been reported that ſilver is found in ſome of the mountains.

The rivers are extremely numerous, and many of them very large and deep. The principal are, the Ouattauais, St. John's, Seguinay, Deſpaires, and Trois Rivieres; but all theſe are ſwallowed up by the great river St. Lawrence. This river iſſues from the lake Ontario; and, taking its courſe north eaſt, waſhes Montreal, where it receives the Ouattauais, and forms many fertile iſlands. It continues the ſame courſe, and meets the tide upwards of four hundred miles from the ſea, where it is navigable for large veſſels; and below Quebec, three huudred and twenty miles from the ſea, it becomes ſo broad and ſo deep, that ſhips of the line contributed in the laſt war to reduce that city. After receiving in its progreſs innumerable ſtreams, it at laſt falls into the ocean at Cape Roſiers, where it is ninety miles broad, and where the cold is intenſe, and the ſea boiſterous. This river is the only one upon which any ſettlements of note are as yet formed.

A river has been lately ſurveyed, by the deputy Surveyor General of Canada, from its entrance into the Bay of Kenty, near Cardaraqui, to its ſource of Lake St. Clie; from which there is an eaſy and ſhort portage acroſs N. W. to the N. E. angle of Lake Huron; and another that is neither long nor difficult, to the ſouthward, to the old ſettlement of Toronto. This is a ſhort rout from Fort Frontinac to Michilimakkinak.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS.

QUEBEC.

Quebec is the capital, not only of Lower Canada, but of all Britiſh America; it is ſituated at the confluence of the rivers St. Lawrence and St.

St. Charles, or the Little River, about three hundred and twenty miles from the ſea. It is built on a rock, partly of marble, and partly of ſlate. The town is divided into an upper and lower. The houſes in both are of ſtone, and built in a tolerable manner. The fortifications are ſtrong, though not regular. The town is covered with a regular and beautiful citadal, in which the governor reſides. The number of inhabitants is computed at about fifteen thouſand. The river, which from the ſea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows all of a ſudden to about a mile wide. The haven, which lies oppoſite the town, is ſafe and commodious, and about five fathoms deep. The harbour is flanked by two baſtions, that are raiſed twenty-five feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox.

From Quebec to Montreal, which is about one hundred and ſeventy miles, in ſailing up the river St. Lawrence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landſcapes, the banks being in many places very bold and ſteep, and ſhaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty cloſe all the way, ſeveral gentlemens' houſes, neatly built, ſhew themſelves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flouriſhing colony; but there are few towns or villages. It is pretty much like the well ſettled parts of Virginia and Maryland, where the planters are wholly within themſelves. Many beautiful iſlands are interſperſed in the channel of the river, which have an agreeable effect upon the eye. After paſſing the Richelieu iſlands, the air becomes ſo mild and temperate, that the traveller thinks himſelf tranſported to another climate; but this is to be underſtood only of the ſummer months.

TROIS RIVIERES.

The town called Trois Rivieres, or the Three Rivers, is about half way between Quebec and Montreal, and has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the river St. Lawrence. It is much reſorted to by ſeveral nations of Indians, who, by means of theſe rivers, come hither and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and ſkins. The country is pleaſant, and fertile in corn, fruit, &c. and great numbers of handſome houſes ſtand on both ſides the river.

MONTREAL.

Montreal ſtands on an iſland in the river St. Lawrence, which is ten leagues in length, and four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the ſouth ſhore.

While

While the French had poſſeſſion of Canada, both the city and iſland of Montreal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them ſo well, that the whole iſland had become a moſt delightful ſpot, and produced every thing that could adminiſter to the conveniencies of life. The city forms an oblong ſquare, divided by regular and well-formed ſtreets; and when taken by the Engliſh the houſes were built in a very handſome manner; and every houſe might be ſeen at one view from the harbour, or from the ſouthernmoſt ſide of the river, as the hill on the ſide of which the town ſtands falls gradually to the water. This place is ſurrounded by a wall and a dry ditch; and its fortifications have been much improved by the Engliſh. Montreal is nearly as large as Quebec, but ſince it fell into the hands of the Engliſh it has ſuffered much by fires.

The principal towns in Upper Canada are Kingſton, on Lake Ontario, Niagara, between Lake Ontario and Lake Erie, and Detroit, ſituated on the weſtern bank of Detroit river, between Lake Erie and Lake Huron, and nine miles below Lake St. Clair.*

POPULATION.

Upper Canada, though an infant ſettlement, is ſaid by ſome to contain forty thouſand, by others, only twenty thouſand inhabitants. The truth probably is between them. Lower Canada, in 1784, contained one hundred thirteen thouſand and twelve ſouls. Both provinces may now contain about one hundred and fifty-two thouſand ſouls, which number is multiplying, both by natural increaſe and by emigrations.

RELIGION.

About nine tenths of the inhabitants of theſe provinces are Roman Catholics, who enjoy under the preſent government the ſame proviſion, rights, and privileges, as were granted them in 1774, by the act of 14th of George III. The reſt of the people are Epiſcopalians, Preſbyterians, and a few of almoſt all the different ſects of Chriſtians.

TRADE.

The commodities required by the Canadians from Europe are, wine, or rather rum; cloths, chiefly coarſe; linen; and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires rum, tobacco, a ſort of duffil blankets, guns, powder, balls, and flints, kettles, hatchets, toys, and trinkets of all

* Niagara and Detroit, though at preſent in poſſeſſion of the Britiſh government, *contrary to the treaty of peace*, are, without any poſſible doubt, both within the limits of the United States.

kinds.

kinds. While the country was in poſſeſſion of the French, the Indians ſupplied them with poultry; and the French had traders, who, like the original inhabitants, traverſed the vaſt lakes and rivers in canoes, with incredible induſtry and patience, carrying their goods into the remoteſt parts of America, and among nations entirely unknown to us. Theſe again brought the furs, &c. home to them, as the Indians were thereby habituated to trade with them. For this purpoſe, people from all parts, even from the diſtance of one thouſand miles, came to the French fair at Montreal, which began in June, and ſometimes laſted three months. On this occaſion many ſolemnities were obſerved, guards were placed, and the governor aſſiſted to preſerve order in ſo great and various a concourſe of ſavage nations. But ſometimes great diſorders and tumults happened: and the Indians frequently gave for a dram all that they were poſſeſſed of. It is remarkable, that many of theſe nations actually paſſed by the then Engliſh ſettlement of Albany in New York, and travelled two hundred miles further to Montreal, though they could have purchaſed the goods they wanted cheaper at the former.

Since Britain became poſſeſſed of Canada, her trade with that country has generally employed from thirty to forty ſhips, and about four thouſand ſeamen.

The amount of the exports from the province of Quebec, as far back as in the year 1786, was three hundred forty-three thouſand two hundred and ſixty-two pounds, nineteen ſhillings and ſix-pence. The amount of imports in the ſame year was three hundred twenty-five thouſand one hundred and ſixteen pounds. The exports conſiſted of wheat, flour, biſcuit, flax-ſeed, lumber of various kinds, fiſh, potaſh, oil, ginſeng and other medicinal roots, BUT PRINCIPALLY OF FURS AND PELTRIES, to the amount of two hundred eighty-five thouſand nine hundred and ſeventy-ſeven pounds *. The imports conſiſted of rum,

* Should America inſiſt (as no doubt ſhe will) on Great Britain ſurrendering the frontier forts, and thoſe lands and ſettlements which ſhe has hitherto held in defiance of the moſt ſolemn treaties, there cannot remain a doubt but nine tenths of the fur trade will paſs into the hands of the Americans. This will prove a moſt ſevere blow to the Canadian commerce, as well as to the revenue of Great Britain, while the Americans, grown wiſe by experience, ſending their furs direct to France, Germany, &c. inſtead of cauſing them to paſs through the hands of Britiſh merchants and brokers, will be able to divide an additional profit of from thirty to fifty per cent. between themſelves and the merchants of thoſe countries.—A profit which is now excluſively enjoyed by Britiſh ſubjects, or foreigners reſiding in Great Britain, as intermediate agents;——

but

rum, brandy, molaſſes, coffee, ſugar, wines, tobacco, ſalt, chocolate, proviſions for the troops, and dry goods.

GOVERNMENT.

By the Quebec act, paſſed by the parliament of Great Britain in the year 1791, ſo much of the act of the 14th of George III. paſſed in the year 1774, as relates to the appointment of a council for the government of the province of Quebec, is repealed; and it is enacted that there ſhall be within each of the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, a Legiſlative Council, and an Aſſembly, who, with the conſent of the Governor, appointed by the King, ſhall have power to make laws. The governor may give or withhold his majeſty's aſſent to bills paſſed by the legiſlative council and aſſembly, or reſerve them for his majeſty's pleaſure. Bills reſerved are to have no force till his majeſty's aſſent is ſignified by the governor, which, to be valid, muſt be ſignified within two years from the time the bill is preſented to the governor. The governor muſt tranſmit to the ſecretary of ſtate copies of ſuch bills as have been aſſented to, which his Majeſty in council may declare his diſallowance of within two years from the receipt.

The Legiſlative Council is to conſiſt of not fewer than ſeven members for Upper, and fifteen for Lower Canada, to be ſummoned by the Governor, who muſt be authorized by the King. Such members are to hold their ſeats for life, unleſs forfeited by four years continual abſence, or by ſwearing allegiance to ſome foreign power.

The Houſe of Aſſembly is to conſiſt of not leſs than ſixteen members from Upper, and not leſs than fifty from Lower Canada, choſen by the freeholders in the ſeveral towns and diſtricts. The council and aſſembly are to be called together at leaſt once in every year; and every aſſembly is to continue four years, unleſs ſooner diſſolved by the Governor. All queſtions are to be decided by a majority of votes of the

but, it may be ſaid, that the ſcarcity of ſpecie in America, and their great demand for Engliſh manufactures, will ſecure the fur trade to Great Britain——ſuch, however, ſhould remember, that the rapid progreſs of manufactures in the United States, aided by the preſent ſpirit of emigration in Europe will ſoon leſſen this demand, and leave the Americans at liberty to carry their furs and other articles to a market which will rapidly increaſe their ſpecie ſufficient to enable them to range the European and other markets with that advantage which the Britiſh merchant has long experienced almoſt without a rival—indeed, it is impoſſible to conſider the rapid advances which America has made ſince her independence, without at the ſame time being convinced, that inſtead of drawing her ſupplies of manufactured goods from Great Britain, ſhe will, e're long, become her rival in the moſt important articles in almoſt every other European market.

members

members preſent. His Majeſty may authorize the Governor to fix the time and place of holding the elections, (ſubject, however, to ſuch proviſions as may hereafter be made by the Legiſlature) and to fix the times and places of holding the ſeſſions of the aſſembly, and to prorogue and diſſolve the ſame whenever he ſhall judge it neceſſary.

The Governor, together with ſuch of the executive council as ſhall be appointed by the King, for the affairs of each province, are to be a court of civil juriſdiction for hearing and determining appeals, ſubject, however, to ſuch appeals from their judgment as heretofore exiſted. All lands in Upper Canada are to be granted hereafter in free and common ſoccage; and alſo in Lower Canada, when the grantee ſhall deſire it, ſubject nevertheleſs to alterations by an act of the Legiſlature.

Britiſh America is ſuperintended by an officer ſtiled Governor General of the four Britiſh provinces in North America, who, beſides other powers, is commander in chief of all the Britiſh troops in the four provinces and the governments attached to them and Newfoundland. Each of the provinces have a Lieutenant Governor, who, in the abſence of the Governor General, has all the powers requiſite to a chief magiſtrate.

THE ISLAND OF CAPE BRETON;

ANNEXED TO THE PROVINCE OF LOWER CANADA.

SITUATION, EXTENT, &c.

The iſland, or rather collection of iſlands, called by the French *Les Iſles de Madam*, which lie ſo contiguous as that they are commonly called but one, and comprehended under the name of the Iſland of Cape Breton, lies between lat. 45° and 47° N. and between 59° and 60°, W. long. from London, or 14° and 15° E. long. from Philadelphia, and about 45 leagues to the eaſtward of Halifax. It is about one hundred miles in length, and fifty in breadth; and is ſeparated from Nova Scotia by a narrow ſtrait, called the *Gut of Canſo*, which is the communication between the Atlantic Ocean, and the Gulph of St. Lawrence.

It is ſurrounded with little ſharp-pointed rocks, ſeparated from each other by the waves, above which ſome of their tops are viſible. All its harbours are open to the eaſt, turning towards the ſouth. On the other parts of the coaſt there are but a few anchoring places for ſmall veſſels, in creeks, or between iſlets. The harbour of St. Peter's, at the weſt end of the iſland, is a very commodious place for carrying on the fiſhery.

CLIMATE.

Except in the hilly parts, the ſurface of the country has but little ſolidity, being every where covered with a light moſs and with water. The dampneſs of the ſoil is exhaled in fogs, without rendering the air unwholeſome. In other reſpects, the climate is very cold, owing either to the prodigious quantity of lakes, which cover above half the iſland, and remain frozen a long time; or to the number of foreſts, that totally intercept the rays of the ſun; the effect of which is beſides decreaſed by perpetual clouds.

HISTORY OF ITS SETTLEMENT, &c.

Though ſome fiſhermen had long reſorted to this iſland every ſummer, not more than twenty or thirty had ever fixed there. The French, who

who took poſſeſſion of it in Auguſt 1713, were properly the firſt inhabitants. They changed its name into that of *Iſle Royale*, and fixed upon Fort Dauphin for their principal ſettlement. This harbour was two leagues in circumference. The ſhips came to the very ſhore, and were ſheltered from winds. Foreſts affording oak ſufficient to fortify and build a large city, were near at hand; the ground appeared leſs barren than in other parts, and the fiſhery was more plentiful. This harbour might have been rendered impregnable at a trifling expence; but the difficulty of approaching it (a circumſtance that had at firſt made a ſtronger impreſſion than the advantages reſulting from it) occaſioned it to be abandoned, after great labour had been beſtowed upon the undertaking. They then turned their views to Louiſbourg, the acceſs to which was eaſier; and convenience was thus preferred to ſecurity: the fortification of Louiſbourg, however, was not begun till 1720.

In the year 1714, ſome fiſhermen, who till then had lived in Newfoundland, ſettled in this iſland. It was expected that their number would ſoon have been increaſed by the Acadians, who were at liberty, from the treaties that had been granted them, to remove with all their effects, and even to diſpoſe of their eſtates; but theſe hopes were diſappointed. The Acadians choſe rather to retain their poſſeſſions under the dominion of Britain, than to give them up for any precarious advantage they might derive from their attachment to France. Their place was ſupplied by ſome diſtreſſed adventurers from Europe, who came over from time to time to Cape Breton, and the number of inhabitants gradually increaſed to four thouſand. They were ſettled at Louiſbourg, Fort Dauphin, Port Toulouſe, Nerucka, and on all the coaſts where they found a proper beach for drying the cod.

This iſland, was attacked by the Engliſh in 1745; and the event is of ſo ſingular a nature, that it deſerves a particular detail. The plan of this firſt invaſion was laid at Boſton, and New England bore the expence of it. A merchant named *Pepperel*, who had excited, encouraged, and directed the enterprize, was intruſted with the command of an army of ſix thouſand men, which had been levied for this expedition.

Though theſe forces, convoyed by a ſquadron from Jamaica, brought the firſt news to Cape Breton of the danger that threatened it; though the advantage of a ſurpriſe would have ſecured the landing without oppoſition; though they had but ſix hundred regular troops to encounter, and eight hundred inhabitants haſtily armed, the ſucceſs of the undertaking was ſtill precarious. What great exploits, indeed, could be

be expected from a militia fuddenly aſſembled, who had never ſeen a ſiege or faced an enemy, and were to act under the direction of ſea-officers only. Theſe unexperienced troops ſtood in need of the aſſiſtance of ſome fortunate incident, which they were indeed favoured with in a ſingular manner.

The conſtruction and repairs of the fortifications had always been left to the care of the garriſon of Louiſbourg. The ſoldiers were eager of being employed in theſe works, which they conſidered as conducive to their ſafety, and as the means of procuring them a comfortable ſubſiſtence. When they found that thoſe who were to have paid them, appropriated to themſelves the profit of their labours, they demanded juſtice. It was denied them, and they were determined to aſſert their right. As theſe depredations had been ſhared between the chief perſons of the colony and the ſubaltern officers, the ſoldiers could obtain no redreſs. Their indignation againſt theſe rapacious extortioners roſe to ſuch a height, that they deſpiſed all authority. They had lived in an open rebellion for ſix months, when the Britiſh appeared before the place.

This was the time to conciliate the minds of both parties, and to unite in the common cauſe. The ſoldiers made the firſt advances; but their commanders miſtruſted a generoſity of which they themſelves were incapable. It was firmly believed that the ſoldiers were only deſirous of ſallying out, that they might have an opportunity of deſerting; and their own officers kept them in a manner priſoners, till a defence ſo ill managed had reduced them to the neceſſity of capitulating. The whole iſland ſhared the fate of Louiſbourg, its only bulwark.

This valuable poſſeſſion, reſtored to France by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, was again attacked by the Britiſh in 1758, and taken. The poſſeſſion was confirmed to Great Britain by the peace in 1763; ſince which the fortifications have been blown up, and the town of Louiſbourg diſmantled.

SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, &c.

The inhabitants never applied themſelves to agriculture, the ſoil being unfit for it. They often ſowed corn, but it ſeldom came to maturity; and when it did thrive ſo much as to be worth reaping, it had degenerated ſo conſiderably, that it was not fit for ſeed for the next harveſt. They have only continued to plant a few pot-herbs that are tolerably well taſted, but muſt be renewed every year from abroad. The poorneſs and ſcarcity of paſtures has likewiſe prevented the increaſe

creaſe of cattle. In a word, the ſoil of Cape Breton ſeems calculated to invite none but fiſhermen.

Though the iſland was entirely covered with foreſts before it was inhabited, its wood has ſcarce ever been an object of trade. A great quantity, however, of ſoft wood was found there fit for firing, and ſome that might be uſed for timber: but the oak has always been ſcarce, and the fir never yielded much reſin. The peltry trade was a very inconſiderable object. It conſiſted only in the ſkins of a few lynxes, elks, muſk-rats, wild cats, bears, otters, and foxes both of a red and ſilver-grey colour. Some of theſe were procured from a colony of Mickmac Indians who had ſettled on the iſland with the French, and never could raiſe more than ſixty men able to bear arms. The reſt came from St. John's, or the neighbouring continent. Greater advantages might poſſibly have been derived from the coal-mines, which abound in the iſland. They lie in a horizontal direction; and being no more than ſix or eight feet below the ſurface, may be worked without digging deep, or draining off the waters. Notwithſtanding the prodigious demand for this coal from New England, from the year 1745 to 1749, theſe mines would probably have been forſaken, had not the ſhips which were ſent out to the French iſlands wanted ballaſt. In one of theſe mines a fire has been kindled, which could never yet be extinguiſhed.

The people of Cape Breton did not ſend all their fiſh to Europe, they ſent part of it to the French ſouthern iſlands, on board twenty or twenty-five ſhips from ſeventy to one hundred and forty tuns burden. Beſides the cod, which made at leaſt half their cargo, they exported to the other colonies timber, planks, thin oak-boards, ſalted ſalmon and mackeril, train-oil, and ſea-coal. All theſe were paid for in ſugar and coffee, but chiefly in rum and molaſſes. The iſland could not conſume all theſe commodities. Canada took off but a ſmall part of the overplus; it was chiefly bought by the people of New England, who gave in exchange fruits, vegetables, wood, brick, and cattle. This trade of exchange was allowed; but a ſmuggling trade was added to it, carried on in flour, and ſalt fiſh.

POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, &c.

On this iſland there are about one thouſand inhabitants, who have a lieutenant-governor reſident among them, appointed by the king. The principal towns are Sidney, the capital, and Louiſbourg, which has the beſt harbour in the iſland.

This

This iſland may be conſidered as the key to Canada, and the very valuable fiſhery, in its neighbourhood, depends for its protection on the poſſeſſion of this iſland; as no nation can carry it on without ſome convenient harbour of ſtrength to ſupply and protect it; and Louiſbourg is the principal one for theſe purpoſes.

NEW BRITAIN;

ANNEXED TO THE GOVERNMENT OF LOWER CANADA.

The country lying round Hudſon's Bay, or the country of the Eſquimaux, comprehended Labrador, New North and South Wales, has obtained the general name of NEW BRITAIN, and is attached to the government of Lower Canada. A ſuperintendant of trade, appointed by the Governor-General of the four Britiſh Provinces, and reſponſible to him, reſides at Labrador.

CLIMATE.

The climate, even about Haye's river, in only lat. 57°, is, during winter, exceſſively cold. The ſnows begin to fall in October, and continue falling by intervals the whole winter: and, when the froſt is moſt rigorous, in form of the fineſt ſand. The ice on the rivers is eight feet thick. Port wine freezes into a ſolid maſs; brandy coagulates. The very breath falls on the blankets of the beds in the form of a hoar froſt, and the bed-cloaths often are found frozen to the wall. The ſun riſes, in the ſhorteſt day, five minutes paſt nine, and ſets five minutes before three. In the longeſt day the ſun riſes at three, and ſets about nine. The ice begins to diſappear in May, and hot weather commences about the middle of June, which at times is ſo violent as to ſcorch the faces of the hunters. Thunder is not frequent, but very violent. But there is a great difference of heat and cold in this vaſt extent, which reaches from lat. 50, 40, to lat. 63 north.—During winter the firmament is not without its beauties. Mock ſuns, halos are not unfrequent; they are very bright, and richly tinged with all the colours of the rainbow. The ſun riſes and ſets with a large cone of yellowiſh light. The night is enlivened with the Aurora Borealis, which ſpreads a thouſand different lights and colours over the whole concave of the ſky, not to be defaced even by the ſplendour of the full moon; and the ſtars are of a fiery redneſs.

In this ſeaſon it however frequently happens, that the air is ſo full of watery vapours, that the ſun will be obſcured for ſeveral weeks together. This is occaſioned by the rime, which aſcends from the open ſea water, and being condenſed by the cold, is driven by the wind to a conſiderable diſtance at times, from forty to fifty miles.

The climate is very perceptibly milder in the interior, than in the parts on the ſea coaſt. The ſnow is not half ſo deep, neither are the

hotteſt days in ſummer ſo ſultry. If a man is frozen in the upper country, it is owing to his not having taken proper care of himſelf; whereas upon the ſea coaſt, with every neceſſary precaution, a man will frequently have his noſe, face, or fingers-ends ſkinned.

The heavens, in cold winter nights, do not exhibit that luminous appearance, which, as before remarked, is obſervable on the ſea coaſt; nor do the ſtars ſhine with that refulgent luſtre. The Aurora Borealis is not ſo common nor ſo brilliant; the Parhelia and Paraſelenes are leſs frequent; and fogs in the winter, are unknown.

In ſhort, the ſea coaſt and the upper country will admit of no compariſon: one is temperate and healthy, the land dry, pleaſant, and fertile in ſpontaneous productions, and the animal creation various and excellent for the ſupport of man: in it, a perſon who could live retired, might paſs his days with eaſe, content, and felicity, and if he did not enjoy an uninterrupted ſtate of health, it would not be the fault of the air he lived in. On the other hand, the lower country is one endleſs bog, where the ſavage animals themſelves are ſometimes conſtantly ſwampt. The fineſt ſummer's day will begin with a ſcorching heat, and terminate with a cold eaſterly ſea fog. The weather uſually incident to autumn and midſummer, is experienced in their different extremes during the ſhort ſpace of twelve hours. The inhabitants frequently fall a prey to the ſeverity of the froſt. The whole country furniſhes but one ſpecies of quadruped fit for the ſupport of man; and the Europeans are accurſed with an afflicting epidemical diſorder, which they very emphatically term the "The Country Diſtemper."

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, &c.

As far inland as the Hudſon Bay Company have ſettlements, which is ſix hundred miles to the weſt of Fort Churchill, at a place called Hudſon Houſe, lat. 53°, lon. 106° 27′ W. from London, is flat country: nor is it known how far to the eaſtward the great chain of mountains ſeen by the navigators from the Pacific Ocean branches off. From Mooſe River, or the bottom of the bay, to Cape Churchill, the land is flat, marſhy, and wooded with pines, birch, larch, and willows. The pine trees, which are of different kinds, are but ſmall; near the ſea-coaſts they generally run knotty, and are unfit to be uſed in the ſtructure of good buildings. The ſame may be ſaid of the juniper trees, growing in the ſame ſituation.

But on leaving the marſhy ground, and retiring inland to the ſouthward, the trees are of a more ſtately growth; and about Mooſe and Albany Forts, they are found of all diameters. Here the climate is much

much more temperate than at York Fort and Churchill Settlement. Potatoes, turnips, and almoſt every ſpecies of kitchen garden ſtuff, are reared with facility; and no doubt corn might be cultivated, if the lords of the ſoil, the Hudſon's Bay Company, had patriotiſm enough to make this extenſive country of any ſervice to Great-Britain. But it has been an invariable maxim with them for many years paſt, to damp every laudable endeavour in their ſervants, that might tend to make theſe countries generally beneficial to the Mother Country. This conduct will appear very extraordinary to thoſe who are unacquainted with the ſelf-intereſted views of the Company. They imagine, that if it was known to the nation, that the lands they poſſeſs were capable of cultivation, it might induce individuals to enquire into their right to an excluſive charter; it is therefore their buſineſs to repreſent it in the worſt light poſſible, to diſcourage an inquiry, which would ſhake the foundation of their beloved monopoly.

Throughout the woods to the ſouthward the ground is covered with a very thick moſs, among which grow various kinds of ſmall ſhrubs, bearing fruit, ſuch as gooſeberries, currants, ſtrawberries, raſberries, cranberries, with many others too tedious to mention. A herb, which the natives call *Wee ſuc a pucka*, grows very plentifully in all parts of the country. The Indians make uſe of it by way of medicine; it makes a very agreeable tea, and is much uſed here, both by Europeans and natives, not only for its pleaſant flavour, but for its ſalutary effects. Its virtues are many; it is an aromatic, very ſerviceable in rheumatic caſes, ſtrengthens the ſtomach, relieves the head, and alſo promotes perſpiration. Outwardly, it is applied to gangrenes, contuſions, and excoriations; in the latter caſe the powder is made uſe of. Another herb of much utility to the natives grows likewiſe here; this they call *Jack aſh a puck*. They mix it with their tobacco to reduce its ſtrength.

In the interior of the country is a great quantity of coal, which is conveyed down the rivers by the currents. A perſon belonging to the Hudſon Bay Company once brought down a piece he had taken from the earth, where it was piled up in heaps. It was in every reſpect ſimilar to that brought to London from the North of England and Scotland. He ſaid that he aſked the Indians the uſe of it; and on their expreſſing their ignorance, he put ſome of it in the fire, which burnt violently to their great aſtoniſhment. What other treaſures may be concealed in this unknown repoſitory, or what valuable ores may be intermixed with the coal, we will not take upon us to determine.

All theſe countries are well ſtored with mooſe, beavers, otters, &c.

but the red deer, jumping deer, and buffalo, are not to be found till where the country becomes more open, and ſo free from woods, that in many places ſcarce a ſufficiency can be procured to make a temporary fire for travellers, who are obliged inſtead thereof to uſe buffalo dung.

Many ſpacious lakes are to be found in the inland parts. Moſt of theſe abound with fiſh, eſpecially when joined to a river; but the natives ſeldom or never look after them, and the greater part of thoſe Indians who come to the Engliſh ſettlements to trade, will neither eat fiſh, water-fowl, nor any amphibious animal.

How far the ſoil of this country may be favourable to the culture of vegetables we are not enabled to advance. Experiments, which ſhould be our principle guide to knowledge in theſe matters, never having been much made uſe of, though we may venture to aſſert, that many parts would admit of cultivation. The Hudſon's Bay Company ſervants have tried Indian corn and barley, by way of experiment, which came to perfection; potatoes, turnips, carrots, radiſhes, onions, &c. have been lately reared, and found as good as thoſe in Canada.

The fruits which ſpontaneouſly ſhoot up, are not in ſuch great variety in the wilderneſſes of Canada, as in the country we are ſpeaking of. The natives collect vaſt quantities of a kind of wild cherries and bring them in for ſale. The Hudſon's Bay people make an excellent beverage of them, which is grateful to the taſte, and is an excellent antiſcorbutic. Raſpberries, ſtrawberries, currants, cranberries, and an infinity of other kinds are to be found every where. So that a perſon, without the help of ammunition, may in the ſummer ſeaſon procure a very comfortable ſubſiſtence, were he bewildered, and alone. Should any one be in this ſituation, almoſt every pond of water would furniſh him with eggs of ducks, &c. and every thicket with a ſatiety of delicious fruit.

The eaſtern coaſt is barren, paſt the efforts of cultivation. The ſurface is every where uneven, and covered with maſſes of ſtone of an amazing ſize. It is a country of fruitleſs and frightful mountains, ſome of an aſtoniſhing height. The vallies are full of lakes, formed not from ſprings, but rain and ſnow, ſo chilly as to be productive of a few ſmall trout only. The mountains have here and there a blighted ſhrub, or a little moſs. The vallies are full of crooked, ſtunted trees, pines, fir, birch, and cedars, or rather a ſpecies of the juniper. In latitude 60° on this coaſt, vegetation ceaſes. The whole ſhore, like that on the weſt, is faced with iſlands at ſome diſtance from land.

The principal rivers which water this country, are the Wager, Monk,

Monk, Seal, Pockerekeſko, Churchill, Nelſon, Hayes, New Severn, Albany, and Mooſe rivers, all which empty into Hudſon's and James Bay from the weſt. The mouths of all the rivers are filled with ſhoals, except Churchill's in which the largeſt ſhips may lie; but ten miles higher the channel is obſtructed by ſand banks. All the rivers as far as they have been explored, are full of rapids and cataracts, from ten to ſixty feet perpendicular. Down theſe rivers the Indian traders find a quick paſſage; but their return is a labour of many months.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, &c.

The inhabitants among the mountains are Indians; along the coaſts, Eſquimaux. The Hudſon's Bay Indians, in all probability, were originally tall, properly proportioned, ſtrongly made, and of as manly an appearance as any people whatever. This, however, was before their commerce with Europeans had enervated and debaſed their minds and bodies, by introducing ſpirituous liquors among them, and habituating them to ſevere courſes of drinking. They are naturally much addicted to this fatal cuſtom; but when it is encouraged and enforced by thoſe who call themſelves an enlightened people, it certainly is not only blameable, but highly criminal. Were common ſenſe but made uſe of to direct the conduct of thoſe who are benefited by the trade carried on with the Indians, ſelf-intereſt and good policy would teach them to diſcourage, as much as poſſible, a habit ſo prejudicial to them, and fatally deſtructive to theſe miſerable people. They are generally of a benevolent diſpoſition, and eaſy to be perſuaded by perſons who underſtand their language; but as a moſt unconſcionable gain is got by trading in ſpirits with them, it is not to be ſuppoſed the factors will ever be induced to put a ſtop to this unchriſtian practice. An Indian will barter away all his furs, nay even leave himſelf without a rag to cover his nakedneſs, in exchange for that vile unwholeſome ſtuff, called Engliſh brandy. If by ſuch exceſſive intoxication they only irreparably injured their own conſtitutions, and debilitated their race, the conſequences, though pernicious, would not be ſo dreadful as they uſually are; but during their intoxication not only freſh quarrels enſue, old grievances are alſo renewed, and death is frequently the conſequence of former bickerings, which but for this ſtimulator had been buried in oblivion.

By this diabolical commerce the country is impoveriſhed of inhabitants, the trade of courſe imperceptibly declines, and this extenſive ſettlement is in a great meaſure prevented from rivalling many of our other foreign eſtabliſhments.

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The natives are however a people of a middle ſize, of a copper complexion, their features regular and agreeable, and few diſtorted or deformed perſons are ſeen among them. When young they have exceſſive large bellies, which is to be attributed to the enormous quantity of food they devour; but as they grow towards puberty this part decreaſes to a common ſize. Their conſtitutions are ſtrong and healthy, and their diſorders few; the chief of theſe is the dyſentery, and a violent pain in the breaſt, which the Engliſh call the Country Diſtemper. The latter is ſuppoſed to proceed from the cold air being drawn into the lungs; which impeding the veſſels from ſpreading throughout that organ, hinders the circulation, and renders reſpiration extremely painful and difficult. They ſeldom live to a great age, but enjoy all their faculties to the laſt.

In their diſpoſitions they are mild, affable, and good-natured, when ſober; but when intoxicated they are loſt to every ſocial quality, and diſcover the greateſt propenſity to quarrelling, theft, and the worſt of vices. When we view the fair ſide of their characters, we find them kind, courteous, and benevolent to each other, relieving the wants and neceſſities of their diſtreſſed brethren with the greateſt good-nature, either by counſel, food, or cloathing. The good effects of this excellent diſpoſition are frequently experienced by themſelves; for, as in their mode of life no one known how ſoon it may be his own fate to be reduced to the verge of extremity, he ſecures for himſelf a return of kindneſs, ſhould he experience that viciſſitude. On the other hand they are ſly, cunning, and artful to a great degree; they glory in every ſpecies of furacity and artifice, eſpecially when the theft or deception has been ſo well executed as to eſcape detection. Their love to their offspring is carried to a very great height. From the ſtate of childhood to maturity they ſeldom or never correct their children, alledging, that when they grow up they will know better of themſelves. Neither is this indulgence made a bad uſe of when reflection ſucceeds the irregularities of youth; on the contrary, ſentiments of reverence, gratitude, and love, link their affections to the authors of their being; and they ſeldom fail to give the utmoſt aſſiſtance to their aged parents whenever their imbecility requires it.

With reſpect to their corporeal abilities, they are almoſt without exception great walkers; they patiently endure cold, hunger, and fatigue; and bear all misfortunes with admirable fortitude and reſignation, which enables them bravely to encounter the proſpect of ill, and renders the mind ſerene under the preſſure of adverſity. As their country abounds with innumerable herds of deer, elks, and buffaloes,

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they frequently make great ſlaughter among them; and upon theſe occaſions they have no regard to futurity, or providing for an unſucceſsful day. Whether they happen to be pining under the graſp of pinching neceſſity, or enjoying themſelves in all the happineſs of health and plenty, they kill all they can, having an incontrovertible maxim among them, which is, "the more they kill, the more they have to kill:" and this opinion, though diametrically oppoſite to reaſon or common ſenſe, is as pertinaciouſly held by them, as his tenets are by the moſt bigotted enthuſiaſt. Indeed, they too frequently find it to their coſt to be grounded on folly, as they ſometimes ſuffer extreme hunger through it; nay, many have been ſtarved to death, and others have been reduced to the ſad neceſſity of devouring their own offspring.

As a great part of the Factory proviſions conſiſts of geeſe killed by the Indians, the Engliſh ſupply them with powder and ſhot for this purpoſe, allowing them the value of a beaver ſkin for every ten geeſe they kill; accordingly, after the Indian has got this ſupply, he ſets off from his tent early in the morning into the marſhes, where he ſets himſelf down, with a degree of patience difficult to be imitated, and being ſheltered by a few willows, waits for the geeſe. They ſhoot them flying, and are ſo very dexterous at this ſport, that a good hunter will kill, in times of plenty, fifty or ſixty in a day. Few Europeans are able to endure cold, fatigue, hunger, or adverſity in any ſhape, with an equal degree of magnanimity and compoſure to that which is familiar to the natives of this country. After being out a whole day on a hunt, expoſed to the bleakeſt winds and moſt penetrating cold, and that without the leaſt thing to ſatisfy the calls of nature, an Indian comes home, warms himſelf at the fire, ſmoaks a few pipes of tobacco, and then retires to reſt, as calm as if in the midſt of plenty; but if he happens to have a family, he cannot always boaſt of this equanimity; when reduced to extremity, his affection for them predominates over his philoſophy, if it might be ſo called, and it gives way to the moſt pungent ſorrow.

A belief in ſome over-ruling inviſible power bears a principal ſhare in the character of theſe unpoliſhed Indians. By this he is induced to impute every occurrence of his life to ſupernatural cauſes. His good or bad ſucceſs in hunting, the welfare of his friends and family, his duration in this mortal ſtate, &c. all depend upon the will and pleaſure of ſome inviſible agent, whom he ſuppoſes to preſide over all his undertakings: for inſtance, one man will invoke a conſpicuous ſtar, another a wolf, one a bear, and another a particular tree; in which he

imagines

imagines the Great Being reſides, and influences his good or ill fortune in this life.

The religious ſentiments of theſe people, though confuſed, are in ſome reſpects juſt. They allow that there is a good Being, and they ſometimes ſing to him; but not out of fear or adoration, for he is too good, they ſay, to hurt them. He is called *Kitch-e-mau-e-to*, or the Great Chief. They further ſay, there is an evil Being, who is always plaguing them; they call him *Whit-ti-co*. Of him they are very much in fear, and ſeldom eat any thing, or drink any brandy, without throwing ſome into the fire for *Whit-ti-co*. If any misfortune befals them, they ſing to him, imploring his mercy; and when in health and proſperity do the ſame, to keep him in good humour. Yet, though obſequious ſometimes, at others they are angry with him, eſpecially when in liquor; they then run out of their tents, and fire their guns in order to kill him. They frequently perſuade themſelves that they ſee his track in the moſs or ſnow, and he is generally deſcribed in the moſt hideous forms. They believe that both the good and the bad Being have many ſervants; thoſe of the former inhabiting the air, but thoſe of the latter walking on the earth. They have likewiſe an opinion that this country was once overflowed; an opinion founded on meeting with many ſea ſhells far inland.

They have no manner of government or ſubordination. The father, or head of a family, owns no ſuperior, nor obeys any command. He gives his advice or opinion of things, but at the ſame time has no authority to enforce obedience: the youth of his family follow his directions, but rather from filial affection or reverence, than in conſequence of any duty exacted by a ſuperior. When ſeveral tents or families meet to go to war, or to the Factories to trade, they chooſe a leader, but it is only voluntary obedience they pay to the leader ſo choſen; every one is at liberty to leave him when he pleaſes, and the notion of a commander is quite obliterated as ſoon as the voyage is over. MERIT ALONE GIVES THE TITLE TO DISTINCTION; AND THE POSSESSION OF QUALITIES THAT ARE HELD IN ESTEEM IS THE ONLY METHOD TO OBTAIN RESPECT. Thus a perſon who is an experienced hunter; one who knows the communication between the lakes and rivers; one who can make long harangues; is a conjuror; or if he has a family; ſuch a man will not fail of being followed by ſeveral Indians, when they happen to be out in large parties; they likewiſe follow him down to trade at the ſettlements: he is, however, obliged to ſecure their attendance upon this occaſion by promiſes and rewards, as the regard paid to his abilities is of too weak

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a nature to command ſubjection. In war a mutual reſentment againſt their enemies forms their union for perpetrating their revenge. *Perſonal courage, patience under hardſhips, and a knowledge of the manners and country of their adverſaries, are the qualifications ſought after in the choice of a leader.* They follow him, whom they have thus choſen, with fidelity, and execute his projects with alacrity; but their obedience does not proceed from any right in the leader to command, it is ſolely founded on his merit, on the affection of his followers, and their deſire of ſubduing their enemies. Theſe ſentiments actuate every breaſt, and augment the union, while in more civilized nations ſuch a compact is effected by a ſlaviſh ſubmiſſion to military laws; for as the ſoldier has no choice in his commander, it frequently happens that neither his abilities nor his character are calculated to gain their eſteem.

The Indian's method of dividing the time, is by numbering the nights elapſed, or to come; thus, if he be aſked how long he has been on his journey, he will anſwer, "ſo many nights." From this nocturnal diviſion, they proceed to the lunar or monthly diviſion, reckoning thirteen of theſe in the year, all of which are expreſſive of ſome remarkable event or appearance, that happens during that revolution of the moon.

Their method of computing numbers is rather abſtruſe, as they reckon chiefly by *decades*; as follows:—Two tens, three tens, &c. Ten tens, or an hundred tens. A few units over or under, are added or ſubtracted. Thus, thirty-two in their tongue is expreſſed, by ſaying three tens and two over.

Thoſe Indians of whom we have now been treating and of whom the Peltries are obtained are known by the following names, *viz. The Ne-heth-aw-a*, the *Aſſinne-poetuc*, the *Fall*, the *Suſſee*, the *Black-feet*, the *Paegan*, and the *Blood Indians*. Theſe are the only Indians with which the Company trade, and conſequently the only ones whoſe manners, cuſtoms, &c. are known.

The laudable zeal of the Moravian clergy induced them, in the year 1752, to ſend miſſionaries from Greenland to this country. They fixed on Neſbit's harbour for their ſettlement; but of the firſt party, ſome of them were killed, and the others driven away. In 1764, under the protection of the Britiſh government, another attempt was made. The miſſionaries were well received by the Eſquimaux, and the miſſion goes on with ſucceſs.

ANIMALS.

The animals of theſe countries are, the mooſe deer, ſtags, rein deer, bears, tygers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, ſquirrels, ermines, wild cats, and hares. The rein deer paſs in vaſt

herds towards the north in October, ſeeking the extreme cold. The male polar bears rove out at ſea, on the floating ice, moſt of the winter, and till June; the females lie concealed in the woods, or beneath the banks of rivers, till March, when they come abroad with their twin cubs, and bend their courſe to the ſea in ſearch of their conſorts. Several are killed in their paſſage; and thoſe that are wounded ſhow vaſt fury, roar hideouſly, and bite and throw up in the air even their own progeny. The females and the young, when not interrupted, continue their way to the ſea. In June the males return to ſhore, and by Auguſt are joined by their conſorts, with their cubs, by that time of a conſiderable ſize. The feathered kinds are, geeſe, buſtards, ducks, growſe, and all manner of wild fowls. Indeed multitudes of birds retire to this remote country, toLabrador and Newfoundland, from places more remotely ſouth, perhaps from the Antilles; and ſome even of the moſt delicate little ſpecies. Moſt of them, with numbers of aquatic fowls, are ſeen returning ſouthward with their young broods to more favourable climates. The ſavages in ſome reſpects regulate their months by the appearance of birds; and have their gooſe-month, from the vernal appearance of geeſe, from the ſouth. All the growſe kind, ravens, cinereous crows, titmouſe, and Lapland finch, brave the ſevereſt winter; and ſeveral of the falcons and owls ſeek ſhelter in the woods. Of fiſh, there are whales, morſes, ſeals, cod-fiſh, and a white fiſh, preferable to herrings; and in their rivers and freſh waters, pike, perch, carp, and trout.

All the quadrupeds of theſe countries are clothed with a cloſe, ſoft, warm fur. In ſummer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours of the ſeveral animals; when that ſeaſon is over, which holds only for three months, they all aſſume the livery of winter, and every ſort of beaſts, and moſt of their fowls, are of the colour of the ſnow; every thing animate and inanimate is white. This is a ſurpriſing phenomenon. But what is yet more ſurpriſing, and what is indeed one of the moſt ſtriking things, that draw the moſt inattentive to an admiration of the wiſdom and goodneſs of Providence, is, that the dogs and cats from Britain that have been carried into Hudſon's Bay, on the approach of winter have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, ſofter, and thicker coat of hair than they had originally.

DISCOVERY AND COMMERCE.

The knowledge of theſe northern ſeas and countries was owing to a project ſtarted in England for the diſcovery of a north-weſt paſſage to China

China and the Eaſt Indies, as early as the year 1576. Since then it has been frequently dropped and as often revived, but never yet compleated; and from the late voyages of diſcovery it ſeems probable, that no practicable paſſage ever can be found. Forbiſher diſcovered the Main of New Britain, of Terra de Labrador, and thoſe ſtreights to which he has given his name. In 1585, John Davis ſailed from Portſmouth, and viewed that and the more northern coaſts, but he ſeems never to have entered the bay. Captain Hudſon made three voyages on the ſame adventure, the firſt in 1607, the ſecond in 1608, and his third and laſt in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered the ſtreights that lead into the bay known by his name, coaſted a great part of it, and penetrated to eighty degrees and a half, into the heart of the frozen zone. His ardour for the diſcovery not being abated by the difficulties he ſtruggled with in this empire of winter, and world of froſt and ſnow, he ſtayed here until the enſuing ſpring, and prepared, in the beginning of 1611, to purſue his diſcoveries; but his crew, who ſuffered equal hardſhips, without the ſame ſpirit to ſupport them, mutinied, ſeized upon him and ſeven of thoſe who were moſt faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the icy ſeas in an open boat. Hudſon and his companions were either ſwallowed up by the waves, or gaining the inhoſpitable coaſt, were deſtroyed by the ſavages; but the ſhip and the reſt of the men returned home.

Other attempts towards a diſcovery were made in 1612 and 1667; and a patent for planting the country, with a charter for a company, was obtained in the year 1670. In 1646, Captain Ellis wintered as far north as 57 degrees and a half, and Captain Chriſtopher attempted farther diſcoveries in 1661. But beſides theſe voyages, we are indebted to the Hudſon's Bay Company for a journey by land; which throws much additional light on this matter, by affording what may be called demonſtration, how much farther North, at leaſt in ſome parts of their voyage, ſhips muſt go, before they can paſs from one ſide of America to the other. The northern Indians, who came down to the Company's factories to trade, had brought to their knowledge a river, which, on account of much copper being found near it, had obtained the name of the Copper Mine River. The Company being deſirous of examining into this matter with preciſion, directed Mr. Hearne, a young gentleman in their ſervice, and who having been brought up for the navy, and ſerved in it the war before laſt, was extremely well qualified for the purpoſe, to proceed over land, under the convoy of thoſe Indians, for that river; which he had orders to ſurvey, if poſſible, quite down to its exit into the ſea; to make obſerva-

tions for fixing the latitudes and longitudes; and to bring home maps and drawings, both of it and the countries through which he ſhould paſs.

Accordingly Mr. Hearne ſet out from Prince of Wales's Fort, on Churchill river, latitude 58° 47½′ north, and longitude 94° 7½′ weſt from Greenwich, on the 7th of December, 1770. Mr. Hearne on the 13th of July reached the Copper Mine river, and found it all the way, even to its exit into the ſea, incumbered with ſhoals and falls, and emptying itſelf into it over a dry flat of the ſhore, the tide being then out, which ſeemed, by the edges of the ice, to riſe about twelve or fourteen feet. This riſe, on account of the falls, will carry it but a very ſmall way within the river's mouth, ſo that the water in it has not the leaſt brackiſh taſte. Mr. Hearne is, nevertheleſs, ſure of the place it emptied itſelf into being the ſea, or a branch of it, by the quantity of whalebone and ſeal ſkins which the Eſquimaux had at their tents; and alſo by the number of ſeals which he ſaw upon the ice. The ſea, at the river's mouth, was full of iſlands and ſhoals, as far as he could ſee, by the aſſiſtance of a pocket teleſcope; and the ice was not then (July 17th) broke up, but thawed away only for about three quarters of a mile from the ſhore, and for a little way round the iſland and ſhoals which lay off the river's mouth. But he had the moſt extenſive view of the ſea when he was about eight miles up the river, from which ſtation the extreme parts of it bore N. W. by W. and N. E.

By the time Mr. Hearne had finiſhed his ſurvey of the river, which was about one o'clock in the morning on the 18th, there came on a very thick fog and drizzling rain; and as he had found the river and ſea, in every reſpect unlikely to be of any utility, he thought it unneceſſary to wait for fair weather, to determine the latitude more exactly by obſervation; but by the extraordinary care he took in obſerving the courſes and diſtances, walking from *Congecathawhachaga*, where he had two very good obſervations, he thinks the latitude may be depended on within 10′ at the utmoſt. It appears from the map which Mr. Hearne conſtructed of this ſingular journey, that the mouth of the Copper Mine river lies in latitude 72° N. and longitude 25° W. from Churchill river; that is, about 119° W. of Greenwich. Mr. Hearne's journey back from the Copper Mine river to Churchill, laſted till June 30th, 1772; ſo that he was abſent almoſt a year and ſeven months. The unparalleled hardſhips he ſuffered, and the eſſential ſervice he performed, have met with a ſuitable reward from his maſters. He has been ſeveral years governor of Prince of Wales's Fort on Churchill river, where he was taken priſoner by the French in 1782.

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Though the adventurers failed in the original purpoſe for which they navigated this bay, their project, even in its failure, has been of advantage to England. The vaſt countries which ſurround Hudſon's Bay, as we have already obſerved, abound with animals, whoſe fur and ſkins are excellent. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, which at preſent conſiſt of only ſeven perſons, for the excluſive trade to this bay, and they have acted under it ever ſince with great benefit to the private men who compoſe the company, though comparatively with little advantage to Great Britain.

Prince Rupert was their firſt Governor; the Duke of Albemarle, Lord Craven, Lord Arlington, and ſeveral other noble perſonages, conſtituted the firſt committee. The tenor of their charter is as full, ample, and comprehenſive, as words can well make it; and, as if they ſuſpected the intruſion of ſome adventurers on their territories, to participate in this valuable trade, the moſt ſevere penalties, with forfeiture of property, are laid on all thoſe, who ſhall haunt, frequent, or trade upon their coaſts; how far their ſucceſſors have been entitled to theſe excluſive immunities, or how far, their confined manner of carrying on the trade has proved beneficial to the country, we ſhall endeavour to point out.

The firſt traders to theſe parts acted upon principles much more laudable and benevolent, than their ſucceſſors ſeem to have been actuated by. They appear to have had the good of the country at heart; and to have endeavoured by every equitable means, to render their commerce profitable to the mother country. Their inſtructions to their factors were full of ſentiments of Chriſtianity, and contained directions for their uſing every means in their power, to reclaim the uncivilized Indians from a ſtate of barbariſm, and to inculcate in their rude minds the humane precepts of the goſpel. They were at the ſame time admoniſhed to trade with them equitably, and to take no advantage of their native ſimplicity. They were further inſtructed to explore the country, and to reap ſuch benefit from the ſoil and produce thereof, as might redound to the intereſt of the Engliſh nation, as well as contribute to their own emolument. And laſtly, they were directed to be particularly careful in ſeeing that the European ſervants behaved orderly, and lived in ſobriety and temperance, obſerving a proper veneration for the ſervice of God, which was ordered to be collectively performed at every ſeaſonable opportunity.

Theſe were injunctions worthy the exalted ſtations and rank in life of thoſe who had the firſt direction of the affairs of the Company; and reflected much honour on their characters, as men and chriſtians: and

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had theſe praiſe-worthy eſtabliſhments been adhered to, the country granted them might at this day have been a real advantage to Great Britain. But inſtead of encouraging the trade, by a mild, equitable, and engaging deportment towards the natives;—inſtead of ingratiating themſelves by affability and condeſcenſion with a harmleſs people, the Hudſon's Bay Company uſe them with undeſerved rigour, cauſing them frequently to be beat and maltreated, although they have come ſome hundreds of miles in order to barter their ſkins, and procure a few neceſſaries to guard againſt the ſeverity of the approaching winter: owing to this conduct the trade has materially declined of late years.

Another reaſon why the Company's trade has declined, is a want of ſpirit in themſelves, to puſh it on with that vigour the importance of the conteſt deſerves. The merchants from Canada have been heard to acknowledge, that was the Hudſon's Bay Company to proſecute their inland trade in a ſpirited manner, they muſt be ſoon obliged to give up all thoughts of penetrating into the country; as from the vicinity of the Company's factories to the inland parts, they can afford to underſel them in every branch.

To explain this emulation between the Company and the Canadian traders, it will be neceſſary to review the ſtate of the Company in the year 1773. About that time the Canadian traders from Montreal, actuated by a laudable ſpirit of induſtry and adventure, and experiencing the pecuniary advantages that reſulted from their exertions, had become ſo numerous and indefatigable at the head of the rivers which lead to the Company's ſettlements, that the trade of the latter was in a great meaſure cut off from its uſual channel. The Indians being ſupplied with every thing they could wiſh for at their own doors, had no longer occaſion, as they hitherto had done, to build canoes, and paddle ſeveral hundred miles, for the ſake of cultivating a commerce with the Company; in which peregrination they were frequently expoſed to much danger from hunger; ſo much ſo, that at one time ſeven canoes of upland Indians periſhed on their return to their own country.

Ever ſince the above period, the Canadian adventurers have annually increaſed in the upland country, much to their own emolument, and the great loſs of the Company: who, it may be ſaid, are ſleeping at the edge of the ſea, without ſpirit, and without vigour or inclination to aſſert that right, which their excluſive charter, *according to their own account*, entitles them to.

It is true, the Hudſon's Bay Company have at this time a few eſtabliſhments in the interior country; but theſe are carried on in ſuch a languid

languid manner, that their exertions have hitherto proved inadequate to the purpoſe of ſupplanting their opponents.

The Company ſignify to their Factors, that they have an indiſputable right to all the territories about Hudſon's Bay, not only including the Straits and Bay, with all the rivers, inlets, &c. therein, but likewiſe to all the countries, lakes, &c. indefinitely to the weſtward, explored and unexplored. They therefore ſtigmatize the Canadian merchants with the inſulting epithets of pedlars, thieves, and interlopers; though the quantity of furs imported by themſelves bears no compariſon to thoſe ſent from Canada. If this unbounded claim, to which they pretend, be founded upon juſtice, why, in the name of equity do they not aſſert theſe pretenſions by a proper application to the Britiſh Parliament to remove the induſtrious pedlars, whom they would ſeem to look upon with ſuch ineffable contempt, and prevent their any longer encroaching on their territories; but the ſhock they received from the parliamentary application of the patriotic Mr. Dobbs, in the year 1749, has given them a diſtate to parliamentary inquiries. They know the weakneſs of their claim, and the inſtability of their pretenſions; it is therefore their intereſt to hide from an inquiſitive but deluded nation, every inveſtigation which might tend to bring to light the futility of their proceedings.

If the Canadian traders can adduce any profit to themſelves by proſecuting this inland buſineſs, what are not the Hudſon's Bay Company enabled to do, with every advantage on their ſide, would they proſecute the trade with vigour?

York Fort at this time has four ſubordinate ſettlements; at which ſettlements, conjointly, the Company allow one hundred ſervants, whoſe wages amount to about one thouſand eight hundred and ſixty pounds per annum; beſides a ſloop of ſixty tons, that makes a voyage once a year between York Fort and Severn Factories. In the year 1748, the complement of men at that ſettlement was no more than twenty-five, whoſe wages amounted to four hundred and ſeventy pounds per annum, and the trade then ſtood at thirty thouſand ſkins one year with another. The other eſtabliſhments which the Company maintain in the Bay, have ſuffered the like proportional change, all decreaſing in trade, and bearing additional incumbrances.

To exhibit at one view a ſtate of their ſeveral eſtabliſhments in the Bay at preſent, the following table is ſubjoined.

TABLE.

Settlements.	Situation. La. N.	Lo. W.	Trade on Average.	Indian Settlem	Ships consigned to.	Sloops in the Country.	No. of Serv.
			Skins.		ſhip tons	ſhip tons	
Churchill	59 0	94 30	10,000		1 of 250	1 of 70	25
York Fort	57 10	93 00	25,000	4	1 of 250	1 of 60	100
Severn Houſe	56 12	88 57					
Albany Fort	52 18	85 18	5,600	2			50
Mooſe Fort	51 28	83 15	7,000	2	1 of 280	1 of 70	40
Eaſtmain	53 24	78 50				1 of 70	25
			47,600	8	3—780	4—270	240

The following is the ſtandard of trade, by which the Governor or Factor, is ordered by the Company to trade with the natives *.

		Beav.				Beav.	
Glaſs beads	lb.	1 as	2	Orrice lace	yd.	1½ as	1
China ditto		1	6	Braſs rings	No.	3	1
Braſs kettles		1	1½	Files		1	1
Coarſe cloth	yd.	1	3	Tobacco boxes		1	1
Blankets	No.	1	7	Awl blades		8	1
Tobacco Brazil	lb.	¾	1	Box barrels		3	1
Ditto leaf		1	1	Hawks bells	pr.	12	1
Ditto Eng. roll		1	1	Sword blades	No.	1	1
Check ſhirts	No.	1	2	Ice chiſſels		1	1
White ditto		1	2	Gun worms		4	1
Yarn ſtockings	pr.	1	2	Coarſe hats		1	4
Powder	lb.	1	1	Small leather trunks		1	4
Shot		4	1	Needles		12	1
Duffels	yd.	1	2	Hatchets		1	1
Knives	No.	4	1	Brandy	gall.	1	4
Guns		1	14	Medals	No.	12	1
Combs		1	1	Thimbles		6	1
Flints		16	1	Braſs collars		1	2
Vermillion	lb.	1	16	Fire ſteels		3	1
Piſtols	No.	1	7	Razors		2	1
Small burning glaſſes		1	1	Thread	lb.	1	1
Gartering	yd.	1½	1				

* This is intended to keep up the appearance of a regular ſettled plan of trade; but though this farce may be played off to thoſe who have not had the opportunities of knowing the deception, it will not have that effect upon a perſon any way acquainted with the buſineſs.

Notwithſtanding

Notwithſtanding this pretended ſtandard is in itſelf ſufficiently hard upon the Indians, and diſcouraging to the trade, yet the factors, and the company, in conjunction, do not think it ſo; for out of this a pernicious overplus trade muſt be raiſed; which, as Mr. Robſon juſtly obſerves, "is big with iniquity, and ſtriking at the very root of their trade as a chartered company:" it is intended to augment the emoluments of the governor, at the expenſe of juſtice and common honeſty: it oppreſſes the Indian, who lives a moſt wretched life, and encounters a variety of difficulties, cold, hunger, and fatigue, to procure a few neceſſaries for himſelf and indigent family.

This overplus trade, as it is called, is carried on in the following manner; for inſtance; ſuppoſe an Indian would trade one pound of glaſs beads, it is ſet down in the ſtandard at two beaver ſkins; but the conſcientious factor will demand three, or perhaps four beaver ſkins for it; if the Indian aſks for a blanket, he muſt pay eight beavers; and if he would purchaſe a gallon of brandy, he muſt give after the rate of eight beaver ſkins for it, as it is always one half, and ſometimes two-thirds water. The conſequence of this griping way of trade is in the end very hurtful to themſelves, as the Canadians, in the interior country, underſell them in every article.

Before the Canadian merchants purſued the fur trade with ſuch diligence as they now do through the lakes, and had penetrated into the interior parts of Hudſon's Bay, a great number of Indians uſed annually to come down to the company's ſettlements to barter their ſkins. And though the company have now in a great meaſure loſt the benefit of this lucrative traffic, it may not be amiſs to mention the manner in which the Indians proſecute their voyages to the factories.

In the month of March, the upland Indians aſſemble on the banks of a particular river or lake, the nomination of which had been agreed on by common conſent, before they ſeparated for the winter. Here they begin to build their canoes, which are generally completed very ſoon after the river ice breaks. They then commence their voyage, but without any regularity, all ſtriving to be foremoſt; becauſe thoſe who are firſt have the beſt chance of procuring food. During the voyage, each leader canvaſſes, with all manner of art and diligence, for people to join his gang; influencing ſome by preſents, and others by promiſes; for the more canoes he has under his command, the greater he appears at the factory.

Being come near their journey's end, they all put aſhore; the women to go in the woods to gather pine-bruſh for the bottoms of the

tents; while the leaders ſmoke together, and regulate the proceſſion. This being ſettled, they re-embark, and ſoon after arrive at the factory. If there is but one captain, his ſituation is in the center of the canoes; if more, they place themſelves on the wings; and their canoes are diſtinguiſhed by having a ſmall flag hoiſted on a ſtick, and placed in the ſtern.

When they arrive within a few hundred yards of the fort, they diſcharge their fowling-pieces, to compliment the Engliſh; who, in return, ſalute them by firing two or three ſmall cannon. The leaders ſeldom concern themſelves with taking out the bundles, but the other men will aſſiſt the women. The factor being informed that the Indians are arrived, ſends the trader to introduce the leaders with their lieutenants, who are uſually their eldeſt ſons or neareſt relations. Chairs are placed for them to ſit down on, and pipes, &c. are introduced. During the time the leader is ſmoking, he ſays very little, but as ſoon as this is over, he begins to be more talkative; and fixing his eyes immoveably on the ground, he tells the factor how many canoes he has brought, what Indians he has ſeen, aſks how the Engliſhmen do, and ſays he is glad to ſee them. After this the governor bids him welcome, tells him he has good goods and plenty, and that he loves the Indians, and will be kind to them. The pipe is by this time removed, and the converſation becomes free.

During this viſit, the chief is dreſt out at the expenſe of the factory in the following manner: a coarſe cloth coat, either red or blue, lined with baize, and having regimental cuffs; and a waiſtcoat and breeches of baize, the whole ornamented with orris lace. He is alſo preſented with a white or check ſhirt; his ſtockings are of yarn, one of them red, the other blue, and tied below the knee with worſted garters; his Indian ſhoes are ſometimes put on, but he frequently walks in his ſtocking-feet; his hat is coarſe, and bedecked with three oſtrich feathers of various colours, and a worſted ſaſh tied round the crown; a ſmall ſilk handkerchief is tied round his neck, and this completes his dreſs. The lieutenant is alſo preſented with a coat, but it has no lining; he is likewiſe provided with a ſhirt and cap, not unlike thoſe worn by mariners.

The gueſts being now equipped, bread and prunes are brought and ſet before the captain, of which he takes care to fill his pockets, before they are carried out to be ſhared in his tent; a two gallon keg of brandy, with pipes and tobacco for himſelf and followers, are likewiſe ſet before him. He is now conducted from the fort to his tent

in

in the following manner: In the front a halberd and enſign are carried; next a drummer beating a march; then ſeveral of the factory ſervants bearing the bread, prunes, pipes, tobacco, brandy, &c. Then comes the captain, walking quite erect and ſtately, ſmoking his pipe, and converſing with the factor. After this follows the lieutenant, or any other friend, who had been admitted into the fort with the leader. They find the tent ready for their reception, and with clean pine-bruſh and beaver coats placed for them to ſit on. Here the brandy, &c. is depoſited, and the chief gives orders to ſome reſpectable perſon to make the uſual diſtribution to his comrades. After this the factor takes his leave, and it is not long before they are all intoxicated; when they give looſe to every ſpecies of diſorderly tumult, ſuch as ſinging, crying, fighting, dancing, &c.; and fifty to one but ſome one is killed before the morning. Such are the ſad effects of the vile compoſition they are furniſhed with, upon theſe occaſions.

After continuing in a ſtate of intoxication, bordering on madneſs, for two or three days, their mental faculties return by degrees, and they prepare themſelves for renewing the league of friendſhip, by ſmoking the calimut; the ceremony of which is as follows: A pipe made of ſtone is filled with Brazil tobacco, mixed with a herb ſomething like European box. The ſtem of the pipe is three or four feet long, and decorated with various pieces of lace, bears claws, and eagles talons, and likewiſe with variegated feathers, the ſpoils of the moſt beauteous of the feathered tribe. The pipe being fixed to the ſtem and lighted, the factor takes it in both his hands, and with much gravity riſes from his chair, and points the end of the ſtem to the Eaſt, or ſun-riſe, then to the Zenith, afterwards to the Weſt, and then perpendicularly down to the Nadir. After this he takes three or four hearty whiffs, and having done ſo, preſents it to the Indian leader, from whom it is carried round to the whole party, the women excepted, who are not permitted to ſmoke out of the ſacred pipe. When it is entirely ſmoaked out, the factor takes it again, and having twirled it three or four times over his head, lays it deliberately on the table; which being done, all the Indians return him thanks by a kind of ſighing out the word Ho.

Though the above ceremony made uſe of by the Indians, in ſmoking the calimut, may appear extremely ridiculous and incomprehenſible, yet, when we are made acquainted with their ideas in this reſpect, the apparent abſurdity of the cuſtom will vaniſh. By this ceremony they mean to ſignify to all perſons concerned, that whilſt

the ſun ſhall viſit the different parts of the world, and make day and night; peace, firm friendſhip, and brotherly love, ſhall be eſtabliſhed between the Engliſh and their country, and the ſame on their part. By twirling the pipe over the head, they further intend to imply, that all perſons of the two nations, whereſoever they may be, ſhall be included in the friendſhip and brotherhood now concluded or renewed.

After this ceremony is over, and a further gratification of bread, prunes, &c. is preſented, the leader makes a ſpeech, generally to the following purport:

"You told me laſt year to bring many Indians to trade, which I "promiſed to do; you ſee I have not lied; here are a great many "young men come with me; uſe them kindly, I ſay; let them trade "good goods; let them trade good goods, I ſay! We lived hard laſt "winter and hungry, the powder being ſhort meaſure and bad; "being ſhort meaſure and bad, I ſay! Tell your ſervants to fill the "meaſure, and not to put their thumbs within the brim; take pity "on us, take pity on us, I ſay! We paddle a long way to ſee you; "we love the Engliſh. Let us trade good black tobacco, moiſt and "hard twiſted; let us ſee it before it is opened. Take pity on us; "take pity on us, I ſay! The guns are bad, let us trade light guns, "ſmall in the hand, and well ſhaped, with locks that will not freeze "in the winter, and red gun caſes. Let the young men have more "than meaſure of tobacco; cheap kettles, thick, and high. Give "us good meaſure of cloth; let us ſee the old meaſure; do you mind "me? The young men prove they love you, by coming ſo far to ſee "you; take pity, take pity, I ſay; and give them good goods; they "like to dreſs and be fine. Do you underſtand me?"

As ſoon as the captain has finiſhed his ſpeech, he, with his followers, proceed to look at the guns and tobacco; the former they examine with the moſt minute attention. When this is over they trade their furs promiſcuouſly; the leader being ſo far indulged, as to be admitted into the trading room all the time, if he deſires it.

It is evident that the fur and peltry trade might be carried on to a much greater extent, were it not entirely in the hands of this excluſive company, whoſe intereſted, not to ſay iniquitous ſpirit, has been the ſubject of long and juſt complaint.

It will, we doubt not, ſeem very myſterious to the generality of people, that the company do not exert themſelves to turn the riches of this country to their advantage, when they alone are to reap the benefit of their exertions. People will naturally be led to conclude from their conduct,

conduct, that what writers have said on this subject is devoid of truth, and mere chimeras; but this is for want of knowing the peculiar views of the company, their affection for their long-fostered monopoly, and that singular obscurity which invelops their whole constitution, nay, the whole of their mercantile transactions.

The company do not entertain the least doubt, but if the country they possess was properly explored by persons of ability, valuable discoveries might be made; but this they think may be so far from redounding to their interest, that it might have a contrary effect, by encouraging adventurers to petition for liberty to partake of these discoveries, and thereby occasion an investigation to take place, which would probably shake the foundation of their charter. This is not all; as the company consists at present but of seven persons; this small number *wisely* think, that as long as they can share a comfortable dividend, there is no occasion for their embarking in additional expenses, in order to prosecute discoveries which might transpire to the world, and endanger the whole.

The limits of the bay and straits comprize a very considerable extent; the soil of which, in many parts, is capable of much improvement by agriculture and industry. The countries abound with most kinds of quadrupeds, &c. whose skins are of great value. The numerous inland rivers, lakes, &c. produce fish of almost every species; and in the seas in and about the straits, and the northern parts of the bay, white and black whales, sea-horses, bears, and seals, are killed in great numbers by the Esquimaux, whose implements for this purpose are exceedingly simple. What advantage might not then arise to the nation from this branch of trade alone, were it laid open? If able harpooners were sent on this employ, with sufficient assistants, and properly encouraged, greater profits would accrue from this fishery, than from all the peltry at present imported by the company. The discovery of numberless fine harbours, and an acquaintance with the surrounding country, which at present is entirely unknown to us, would, in all likelihood, be the consequence of these seas being more frequented than they are. And indeed if ever the forts and settlements on the American boundary line are surrended according to the treaty of peace, England has no other means in her hands to counterpoise the superior advantages the Americans will then possess in the fur trade, than to throw the trade to Hudson's bay open, and thus destroy a disgraceful monopoly, or to incorporate with it by a new charter the merchants trading to Canada, and thus infuse into it a fresh portion

tion of mercantile vigour: by this means an extenſive intercourſe with nations, to which we at preſent are almoſt ſtrangers, might be opened, and a country explored whoſe reſources may equal if not ſurpaſs thoſe of the country round Canada.

If it be objected to this, that the vaſt quantities of ice in the ſtraits muſt impede a veſſel from making diſcoveries, we anſwer, that many years the ice is ſo inſignificant in quantity as not to obſtruct the paſſage of the ſhips in the leaſt; and in thoſe ſeaſons when it is thickeſt, it is diſſolved and diſperſed in the ocean long before the return of the ſhips in September.

Even in the very confined manner in which the company carry on this trade, it is far from being inconſiderable in value, though their ſhips ſeldom ſtop but a very ſhort time for the purpoſe of trading with the Eſquimaux; they employ three ſhips annually, which are manned with ſeventy-five men.

The company exports commodities to the value of about ten thouſand pounds, and bring home returns to the value of twenty-nine thouſand three hundred and forty pounds, which yield to the revenue about three thouſand ſeven hundred and thirty-four pounds. This includes the fiſhery in Hudſon's bay. That this commerce, ſmall as it is, affords immenſe profits to the company, and even ſome advantages to Great Britain in general, cannot be denied; for the commodities exchanged with the Indians for their ſkins and furs, are all manufactured in Britain; and as the Indians are not very nice in their choice, ſuch things are ſent of which there is the greateſt plenty, and which, to uſe a mercantile phraſe, are drugs. Though the workmanſhip happens to be in many reſpects ſo deficient, that no civilized people would take it, it may be admired among the Indians. On the other hand, the ſkins and furs brought home in return afford articles for trading with many nations of Europe to great advantage. Theſe circumſtances prove the immenſe benefit that would redound to Britain, by throwing open the trade to Hudſon's bay, ſince even in its preſent reſtrained ſtate it is ſo advantageous.* The only attempt made to trade with Labrador, has been directed towards the fiſhery. Great Britain has no ſettlement there. The annual produce of the fiſhery amounts to upwards of forty-nine thouſand pounds.

* In May 1782 all the forts and ſettlements belonging to the Hudſon's bay company were deſtroyed by the French, the damage ſuſtained was rated at five hundred thouſand pounds.

NOVA-SCOTIA;

COMPREHENDING THE PROVINCE OF NEW-BRUNSWICK AND NOVA-SCOTIA.

SITUATION, EXTENT, AND BOUNDARIES.

THESE provinces are ſituated between 43° 30′ and 49° north latitude and 60° and 67° eaſt longitude from London, or 8° and 15° eaſt longitude from Philadelphia. Their length is four hundred miles, and their breadth three hundred. They are bounded on the north, by the river St. Lawrence; on the eaſt, by the gulf of St. Lawrence, which waſhes its coaſts one hundred and ten leagues in extent, from the gut of Canſo, at its entrance into the gulf, to cape Rozier, which forms the ſouth part of the river St. Lawrence, and by the gut of Canſo, which divides it from cape Breton; on the ſouth, it is waſhed by the Atlantic ocean, having a ſea coaſt of ninety leagues, from cape Canſo, eaſt, to cape Sables, weſt, which forms one part of the entrance into the bay of Fundy, which alſo forms a part of its ſouthern boundary; weſt, by a part of Lower Canada, and the diſtrict of Maine.

Notwithſtanding the forbidding appearance of this country, it was here that ſome of the firſt European ſettlements were made. The firſt grant of lands in it was given by James the Firſt to his ſecretary, Sir William Alexander, from whom it had the name of Nova-Scotia, or New-Scotland; ſince then it has frequently changed hands, from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the Engliſh nation backward and forward. It was not confirmed to the Engliſh, till the peace of Utrecht, and their deſign in acquiring it does not ſeem to have ariſen ſo much from any proſpect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as from an apprehenſion that the French, by poſſeſſing this province, might have had it in their power to annoy the other Britiſh ſettlements. Upon this principle, three thouſand families were tranſported in 1749, at the charge of the government, into this country, who built and ſettled the town of Halifax.

The tract of country within theſe limits, known by the name of Nova-Scotia, or New-Scotland, was, in 1784, divided into two provinces,

vinces, viz. New-Brunſwick, on the north-weſt, and Nova-Scotia, on the ſouth-eaſt. The former comprehends that part of the old province of Nova-Scotia, which lies to the northward and weſtward of a line drawn from the mouth of the river St. Croix, through the center of the bay of Fundy to bay Verte, and thence into the gulf of St. Lawrence, including all lands within ſix leagues of the coaſt. The reſt is the province of Nova-Scotia, to which is annexed, the iſland of St. John's, which lies north of it, in the gulf of St. Lawrence.

SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, &c.

During a great part of the year, the atmoſphere is clouded with thick fog, which renders it unhealthy for the inhabitants; and four or five months it is intenſely cold. A great part of this country lies in foreſt, and the ſoil, in many parts, is thin and barren. On the banks of the rivers, however, and ſome other parts, the ſoil is very good, producing large crops of Engliſh graſs, hemp, and flax: many of the bays, and ſalt water rivers, and ſome parts of the ſea coaſt, are bordered with fine tracts of ſalt marſh; but the inhabitants do not raiſe proviſions enough for home conſumption.

RIVERS, BAYS, LAKES AND CAPES.

The rivers which water this country we ſhall mention in connection with the different counties in which they principally flow, a few, however, call for ſeparate notice. The rivers Riſconge and Nipiſiguit run from weſt to eaſt into Chaleur and Nipiſiguit bays, which communicate with the gulf of St. Lawrence. The river St. Croix (which is the true St. Croix, is yet undetermined) empties into Paſſamaquoddy bay, and forms a part of the boundary between New-Brunſwick and Maine. St. John's is the largeſt river in the province. It empties into the north ſide of the bay of Fundy, and is navigable for veſſels of fifty tons, ſixty miles, and for boats upwards of two hundred miles. This is a common route to Quebec. The banks of this river, enriched by the annual freſhets, are excellent land. About thirty miles from the mouth of this river commences a fine level country, covered with large trees of timber of various kinds. Maſts, from twenty to thirty inches in diameter, have been cut on this tract. The tide flows, in this river, eighty or ninety miles. It furniſhes the inhabitants with ſalmon, baſs, and ſturgeon. Near fort Howe, the river ſuddenly narrows, and occaſions a fall at certain times of tide, like that at London Bridge.

The

The coaſt of theſe provinces is indented with numerous bays, and commodious harbours. The principal, as you deſcend ſoutherly from the mouth of St. Lawrence river, are Gaſpee, Chaleur, Verte, which is ſeparated from the bay of Fundy by a narrow iſthmus of about eighteen miles wide; cape and harbour of Canſo, forty leagues eaſtward of Halifax. Chedabucto bay about ten leagues north-weſt of Canſo. Chebucto bay, on which ſtands the town of Halifax. The bay of Fundy, which extends fifty leagues into the country, in which the ebb and flow of the tide is from forty-five to ſixty feet. Chenigto bay is at the head of Fundy bay. Paſſamaquoddy bay borders on the diſtrict of Maine, and receives the waters of St. Croix river. At the entrance of this bay is an iſland, granted to ſeveral gentlemen in Liverpool in Lancaſhire, who named it Campobello. At a very conſiderable expenſe, they attempted to form a ſettlement there, but failed. On ſeveral other iſlands in this bay there are ſettlements made by people from Maſſachuſets. Among the lakes in theſe provinces, which are very numerous, and many as yet without names, is Grand lake, in the province of New-Brunſwick, near St. John's river, about thirty-miles long, and eight or ten broad, and in ſome places forty fathoms deep.

The principal capes are cape Canſo, on the weſt ſide of the entrance into Chedabucto bay, and cape Sables, on the eaſt ſide of the entrance into the bay of Fundy.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.

Theſe in 1783, were as follows:

Counties.	Townſhips.	By whom ſettled.	Rivers.
HANTS, on the river Avon.	Windſor Falmouth Newport		Avon or Pigiguit St. Croix Kenetcoot Cocmiguen Cacaguet Cobeguit All emptying into the Avon, and except the laſt navigable. Nav. 40 m. for veſſ. of 60 tons.
HALIFAX, Eaſtern part of Nova-Scotia.	Halifax London Der. Truro Onſlow Colcheſter Lawrence Southampton Canſo Tinmouth	Iriſh and Scotch from New-England	Shebbenaccadie. Boatable. Pitcoudiac Memremcoot
KINGS, on the Baſon of Miner.	Cornwallis Horton		Percau, ſmall Habitant, navig. for veſſ. of 40 tons a ſmall diſtance. Canaid, navig. for veſſ. of 160 tons 3 or 4 miles. Cornwallis, navig. for veſſ. of 100 tons 5 miles, for veſ. of 50 tons 10 miles. Salmon river.*
ANNAPOLIS, on Annapolis river.	Wilmot Granville Annapolis Clare Moncton	ſett. from Irel. and New-Engl. do. a fine townſhip 30 miles in leng. on the bay of Fundy. 40 families of Acadians. Do.	Annapolis, navigable for ſhips of any burthen 10 miles—of 100 tons 15 miles; tide flows 30 miles, paſſable in boats to within twenty miles of Horton.
CUMBERLAND, at the head of bay of Fundy.	Cumberland Sackville Amherſt Hillſboro' Hopewell	ſettled from N. Eng. & Yorkſh. ſettled from N. of Ire. N. Eng. and Yorkſhire.	An Lac, Marequeſh, La Planche: which are nav. 3 or 4 miles for veſſels of 5 tons. Napan, Macon: ſhoal rivers. Memrem, Petcoudia, Chepodie: navigable 4 or 5 mil. Herbert: navigable by boats to its head 12 miles.
SUNBURY, on the river St. John's, north ſhore of bay of Fundy.	Conway Gage-Town Burton Sunbury St. Ann's Willmot Newton Maugerville	ſettled from Maſſachuſetts, Connecticut, &c.	St John's, already deſcribed.
QUEENS, ſouth ſide of bay of Fundy.	Argyle Yarmouth Barrington (Sable Iſl.) Liverpool	Scots & Acad. New-England Quakers from Nantucket New-England	None.
LUNENBURG, on Mahone bay.	New-Dublin Lunenburgh Cheſter Blandford	Iriſh formerly, now Germans Germans New-England, 3 families only.	None.

* There are ſettlements of Acadians on all theſe rivers, whoſe banks are good land.

PRINCIPAL

PRINCIPAL TOWNS.

HALIFAX is the capital of the province of Nova-Scotia. It ſtands on Chebucto bay, commodiouſly ſituated for the fiſhery, and has a communication with other parts of this province and New-Brunſwick by land and water carriage. It has a good harbour, where a ſmall ſquadron of ſhips of war lie during the winter, and in the ſummer protects the fiſhery. The town has an entrenchment, and is ſtrengthened with forts of timber. It is ſaid to contain fifteen or ſixteen thouſand inhabitants.

SHELBURNE on port Roſeway, near cape Sables, was ſuppoſed, in 1783, to contain ſix hundred families; ſince that time it has become leſs populous. Guyſborough formerly called Mancheſter, ſituated on Chedabucto bay, about ten leagues north-weſt of cape Canſo, contained, in 1783, about two hundred and fifty families. Rawdon forty miles from Halifax, has about ſixty houſes. Annapolis on the eaſt ſide of Fundy bay, has one of the fineſt harbours in the world. In other reſpects it is a poor, inconſiderable place.

FREDERICKTOWN, about ninety miles up St. John's river, is the capital of the province of New-Brunſwick.

FORTS.

There are ſeveral forts in theſe provinces: theſe are fort Edward at Windſor, capable of containing two hundred men; Annapolis, in its preſent ſtate, one hundred; Cumberland, three hundred; fort Howe, on St. John's river, one hundred: beſides which there are barracks, incloſed in a ſtockade at Cornwallis, for about fifty men.

TRADE.

The exports from Great Britain to this country conſiſt chiefly of linen and woollen cloths, and other neceſſaries for wear, of fiſhing tackle, and rigging for ſhips. The amount of exports, at an average of three years, before the new ſettlements, was about twenty-ſix thouſand five hundred pounds. The only articles obtained in exchange are, timber and the produce of the fiſhery, which, at a like average, amounted to thirty-eight thouſand pounds. But from the late increaſe of inhabitants, it is ſuppoſed that they will now erect ſaw mills, and endeavour to ſupply the Weſt-India iſlands with lumber of every kind, as well as the produce of the fiſhery, which will be a profitable ar-

ticle to both countries. The whole population of Nova-Scotia and the iſlands adjoining, is eſtimated at fifty thouſand. This eſtimate t is ſuppoſed is conſiderably too large. Recent accounts of theſe ſettlements repreſent them as in a declining ſtate, having great numbers of the houſes built in the new towns uninhabited, and conſiderably reduced in value.

INDIANS, &c.

The Indians here are the Micmacks, and the tribe called the Marechites. The former inhabit the eaſtern ſhore, between Halifax and cape Breton; between Cumberland county and the north-eaſt coaſt of the province, towards Chaleur bay; about the heads of the rivers which run through the counties of Hants and King's county; and between cape Sable and Annapolis royal. This tribe is ſuppoſed to have about three hundred fighting men. The Marechites inhabit the river St. John, and around Paſſamaquoddy bay, are eſtimated at one hundred and forty fighting men; they are much ſuperior in all reſpects to the Micmacks.—The animals are the ſame as in the United States, though much leſs numerous.

ISLAND OF SAINT JOHN.

THIS iſland lies in the gulf of St. Lawrence, near the northern coaſt of the province of Nova-Scotia, and is about ſixty miles long, and thirty or forty broad. It has ſeveral fine rivers, a rich ſoil, and is pleaſantly ſituated. Charlotte-town is its principal town, and is the reſidence of the lieutenant-governor, who is the chief officer on the iſland. The number of inhabitants are eſtimated at about five thouſand. Upon the reduction of cape Breton in 1745, the inhabitants of this iſland, amounting to about four thouſand, ſubmitted quietly to the Britiſh arms. While the French poſſeſſed this iſland, they improved it to ſo much advantage, that it was called the granary of Canada, which it furniſhed with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork. It is attached to the province of Nova-Scotia.

NEW-

NEWFOUNDLAND ISLAND.

NEWFOUNDLAND is ſituated to the eaſt of the gulf of St. Lawrence, between forty-ſix and fifty-two degrees of north latitude, and between fifty-three and fifty-nine degrees weſt longitude, ſeparated from Labrador, or New-Britain, by the ſtraits of Belleiſle; and from Canada, by the bay of St. Lawrence; being five hundred and fifty miles long and two hundred broad. The coaſts are extremely ſubject to fogs, attended with almoſt continual ſtorms of ſnow and ſleet, the ſky being uſually overcaſt. From the ſoil of this iſland the Britiſh reap no great advantage, for the cold is long continued and ſevere; and the ſummer heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable; for the ſoil, at leaſt in thoſe parts of the iſland which have been explored, is rocky and barren; however, it is watered by ſeveral good rivers, and has many large and good harbours. This iſland, whenever the continent ſhall come to fail of timber convenient to navigation, which on the ſea coaſt perhaps will be at no very remote period, it is ſaid, will afford a large ſupply for maſts, yards, and all ſorts of lumber for the Weſt-India trade. But what at preſent it is chiefly valuable for, is the great fiſhery of cod carried on upon thoſe ſhoals, which are called the banks of Newfoundland. Great-Britain and North-America, at the loweſt computation, annually employ three thouſand ſail of ſmall craft in this fiſhery; on board of which, and on ſhore to cure and pack the fiſh, are upwards of one hundred thouſand hands; ſo that this fiſhery is not only a very valuable branch of trade to the merchant, but a ſource of livelihood to ſo many thouſands of poor people, and a moſt excellent nurſery for ſeamen. This fiſhery is computed to increaſe the national ſtock three hundred thouſand pounds a year in gold and ſilver, remitted for the cod ſold in the north, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant. The plenty of cod, both on the great bank and the leſſer ones, which lie to the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt of this iſland, is inconceiveable; and not only cod, but ſeveral other ſpecies of fiſh, are caught there in abundance; all of which are nearly in an equal plenty along the ſhores of

New-

Newfoundland, Nova-Scotia, New-England, and the iſle of cape Breton; and very profitable fiſheries are carried on upon all their coaſts.

This iſland, after various diſputes about the property, was entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets on the northern ſhores of the iſland; and by the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fiſh in the gulf of St. Lawrence, but with this limitation, that they ſhould not approach within three leagues of any of the coaſts belonging to England. The ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, ſituated to the ſouthward of Newfoundland, were alſo ceded to the French, who ſtipulated to erect no fortifications on theſe iſlands, nor to keep more than fifty ſoldiers to enforce the police. By the laſt treaty of peace, the French are to enjoy the fiſheries on the north and on the weſt coaſts of the iſland; and the inhabitants of the United States are allowed the ſame privileges in fiſhing as before their independence. The chief towns in Newfoundland are, Placentia, Bonavíſta, and St. John's: but not above one thouſand families remain here in winter. A ſmall ſquadron of men of war are ſent out every ſpring to protect the fiſheries and inhabitants, the admiral of which, for the time being, is governor of the iſland, beſides whom there are two lieutenant-governors, one at Placentia, and the other at St. John's.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION

OF

GREENLAND.

GREENLAND is a general name by which is now denoted the moſt eaſterly parts of America, ſtretching towards the north-pole, and likewiſe ſome iſlands northward of the continent of Europe, lying in very high latitudes. The whole of this country was formerly deſcribed as belonging to Europe, but from its contiguity to, and probable union with the American continent, it appears moſt proper to be claſſed among the countries belonging to the latter; we therefore have followed Mr. Morſe, and placed it among the diviſions of North-America.—It is divided into two parts, viz. Weſt and Eaſt Greenland, of each we ſhall here give a deſcription from the beſt authorities extant.

WEST GREENLAND.

THIS country is now laid down, in our lateſt maps, as part of the continent of America, though on what authority is not very clear.* That

* Whether Greenland is an iſland, has not yet been decided, as no ſhip has penetrated higher than the ſeventy-eighth degree, on account of the ice. That it is not an iſland, but a part of the American continent, is rendered probable; 1ſt. Becauſe Davis' ſtraits, or rather Baffin's bay, grows narrower and narrower towards the ſeventy-eighth degree north.—2d. Becauſe the coaſt, which in other places is very high towards the ſea, grows lower and lower northward.—3d. Becauſe the tide, which at cape Farewell, and as far up as Cockin's ſound, in the ſixty-fifth degree of latitude, riſes eighteen feet at the new and full moon, decreaſes to the northward of Diſko, ſo that in the ſeventieth degree of latitude

That part of it which the Europeans have any knowledge of is bounded on the weſt by Baffin's bay, on the ſouth by Davis' ſtraits, and on the eaſt by the northern part of the Atlantic ocean. It is a very mountainous country, and ſome parts of it ſo high that they may be diſcerned thirty leagues off at ſea. The inland mountains, hills, and rocks, are covered with perpetual ſnow; but the low lands on the ſea-ſide are cloathed with verdure in the ſummer ſeaſon. The coaſt abounds with inlets, bays, and large rivers; and is ſurrounded with a vaſt number of iſlands of different dimenſions. In a great many places, however, on the eaſtern coaſt eſpecially, the ſhore is inacceſſible by reaſon of the floating mountains of ice. The principal river, called Baal, falls into the ſea in the ſixty-fourth degree of latitude, where the firſt Daniſh lodge was built in 1721; and has been navigated above forty miles up the country.

Weſt Greenland was firſt peopled by Europeans in the eighth century. At that time a company of Icelanders, headed by one Ericke Rande, were by accident driven on the coaſt. On his return he repreſented the country in ſuch a favourable light, that ſome families again followed him thither, where they ſoon became a thriving colony, and beſtowed on their new habitation the name of Groenland, or Greenland, on account of its verdant appearance. This colony was converted to Chriſtianity by a miſſionary from Norway, ſent thither by the celebrated Olaf, the firſt Norwegian monarch who embraced the Chriſtian religion. The Greenland ſettlement continued to increaſe and thrive under his protection; and in a little time the country was provided with many towns, churches, convents, biſhops, &c. under the juriſdiction of the archbiſhop of Drontheim. A conſiderable commerce was carried on between Greenland and Norway; and a regular intercourſe maintained between the two countries till the year 1406, when the laſt biſhop was ſent over. From that time all correſpondence was cut off, and all knowledge of Greenland has been buried in oblivion.

latitude it riſes little more than eight feet, and probably continues to diminiſh, till there is no tide at all.—To which may be added the relation of the Greenlanders, which however cannot be much depended on, viz. that the ſtrait contracts itſelf ſo narrow at laſt, that they can go on the ice ſo near to the other ſide as to be able to call to the inhabitants, and that they can ſtrike a fiſh on both ſides at once; but that there runs ſuch a ſtrong current from the north into the ſtrait, that they cannot paſs it.

Ellis' voyage to Hudſon's bay for the diſcovery of a north-weſt paſſage.

This ſtrange and abrupt ceſſation of trade and intercourſe has been attributed to various cauſes; but the moſt probable is the following: The colony, from its firſt ſettlement, had been haraſſed by the natives, a barbarous and ſavage people; agreeing in cuſtoms, garb, and appearance, with the Eſquimaux found about Hudſon's bay. This nation, called Schrellings, at length prevailed againſt the Iceland ſettlers who inhabited the weſtern diſtrict, and exterminated them in the fourteenth century: inſomuch, that when their brethren of the eaſtern diſtrict came to their aſſiſtance, they found nothing alive but ſome cattle and flocks of ſheep running wild about the country. Perhaps they themſelves afterwards experienced the ſame fate, and were totally deſtroyed by theſe Schrellings, whoſe deſcendants ſtill inhabit the weſtern parts of Greenland, and from tradition confirm this conjecture. They affirm that the houſes and villages, whoſe ruins ſtill appear, were inhabited by a nation of ſtrangers, whom their anceſtors deſtroyed. There are reaſons, however, for believing that there may be ſtill ſome deſcendants of the ancient Iceland colony remaining in the eaſtern diſtrict, though they cannot be viſited by land, on account of the ſtupendous mountains, perpetually covered with ſnow, which divide the two parts of Greenland; while they have been rendered inacceſſible by ſea, by the vaſt quantity of ice driven from Spitzbergen, or Eaſt Greenland. One would imagine that there muſt have been ſome conſiderable alteration in the northern parts of the world ſince the fifteenth century, ſo that the coaſt of Greenland is now become almoſt totally inacceſſible, though formerly viſited with very little difficulty. It is alſo natural to aſk, by what means the people of the eaſtern colony ſurmounted the above-mentioned obſtacles when they went to the aſſiſtance of their weſtern friends; how they returned to their own country; and in what manner hiſtorians learned the ſucceſs of their expedition? Concerning all this we have very little ſatisfactory information. All that can be learned from the moſt authentic records is, that Greenland was divided into two diſtricts, called Weſt-Bygd and Eaſt-Bygd: that the weſtern diviſion contained four pariſhes and one hundred villages: that the eaſtern diſtrict was ſtill more flouriſhing, as being nearer to Iceland, ſooner ſettled, and more frequented by ſhipping from Norway. There are alſo many accounts, though moſt of them romantic and ſlightly atteſted, which render it probable that part of the eaſtern colony ſtill ſubſiſts, who, at ſome time or other, may have given the imperfect relation above mentioned. This colony, in ancient times, certainly comprehended twelve exten-

five parishes; one hundred and ninety villages; a bishop's see, and two monasteries. The present inhabitants of the western district are entirely ignorant of this part, from which they are divided by rocks, mountains, and deserts, and still more effectually by their apprehension: for they believe the eastern Greenlanders to be a cruel, barbarous nation, that destroy and eat all strangers who fall into their hands. About a century after all intercourse between Norway and Greenland had ceased, several ships were sent successively by the kings of Denmark in order to discover the eastern district; but all of them miscarried. Among these adventurers, Mogens Heinson, after having surmounted many difficulties and dangers, got sight of the land; which, however, he could not approach. At his return, he pretended that the ship was arrested in the middle of her course by certain rocks of loadstone at the bottom of the sea. The same year, 1576, in which this attempt was made, has been rendered remarkable by the voyage of Captain Martin Frobisher, sent upon the same errand by Queen Elizabeth. He likewise descried the land; but could not reach it, and therefore returned to England; yet not before he had sailed sixty leagues in the strait, which still retains his name, and landed on several islands, where he had some communication with the natives. He had likewise taken possession of the country in the name of Queen Elizabeth; and brought away some pieces of heavy black stone, from which the refiners of London extracted a certain proportion of gold. In the ensuing spring he undertook a second voyage, at the head of a small squadron, equipped at the expense of the public, entered the straits a second time; discovered upon an island a gold and silver mine; bestowed names upon different bays, islands, and head-lands; and brought away a lading of ore, together with two natives, a male and a female, whom the English kidnapped.

Such was the success of this voyage, that another armament was fitted out under the auspices of Admiral Frobisher, consisting of fifteen sail, including a considerable number of soldiers, miners, smelters, carpenters, and bakers, to remain all the winter near the mines in a wooden fort, the different pieces of which they carried out in the transports. They met with boisterous weather, impenetrable fogs, and violent currents upon the coast of Greenland, which retarded their operations until the season was far advanced. Part of their wooden fort was lost at sea; and they had neither provision nor fuel sufficient for the winter. The admiral therefore determined to return with as much ore as he could procure, of this they obtained large quantities

out

out of a new mine, to which they gave the name of the Counteſs of Suſſex. They likewiſe built an houſe of ſtone and lime, provided with ovens; and here, with a view to conciliate the affection of the natives, they left a quantity of ſmall morrice-bells, knives, beads, looking-glaſſes, leaden pictures, and other toys, together with ſeveral loaves of bread. They buried the timber of the fort where it could be eaſily found next year; and ſowed corn, peaſe, and other grain, by way of experiment, to know what the country would produce. Having taken theſe precautions, they ſailed from thence in the beginning of September; and after a month's ſtormy paſſage, arrived in England: but this noble deſign was never proſecuted.

Chriſtian IV. king of Denmark, being deſirous of diſcovering the old Greenland ſettlement, ſent three ſhips thither, under the command of captain Godſke Lindenow, who is ſaid to have reached the eaſt coaſt of Greenland, where he traded with the ſavage inhabitants, ſuch as they are ſtill found in the weſtern diſtrict, but ſaw no ſigns of a civilized people. Had he actually landed in the eaſtern diviſion, he muſt have perceived ſome remains of the ancient colony, even in the ruins of their convents and villages. Lindenow kidnapped two of the natives, who were conveyed to Copenhagen; and the ſame cruel fraud was practiſed by other two ſhips which ſailed into Davis' ſtraits,* where they diſcovered divers fine harbours, and delightful meadows

* Nothing can be more inhuman and repugnant to the dictates of common juſtice than this practice of tearing away poor creatures from their country, their families, and connections: unleſs we ſuppoſe them altogether deſtitute of natural affection; and that this was not the caſe with thoſe poor Greenlanders, ſome of whom were brought alive to Copenhagen, appears from the whole tenor of their conduct, upon their firſt capture, and during their confinement in Denmark. When firſt captivated, they rent the air with their cries and lamentations: they even leaped into the ſea; and, when taken on board, for ſome time refuſed all ſuſtenance. Their eyes were continually turned towards their dear country, and their faces always bathed in tears. Even the kindneſs of his Daniſh majeſty, and the careſſes of the court and people, could not alleviate their grief. One of them was perceived to ſhed tears always when he ſaw an infant in the mother's arms; a circumſtance from whence it was naturally concluded, that he had left his wife with a young child in Greenland. Two of them went to ſea in their little canoes in hope of reaching Greenland; but one of them was retaken. Other two made the ſame attempt; but were driven by a ſtorm on the coaſt of Schonen, where they were apprehended by the peaſants, and reconveyed to Copenhagen. One of them afterwards died of a fever, caught in fiſhing pearl, during the winter, for the governor of Kolding. The reſt lived ſome years in Denmark; but at length, ſeeing no proſpect of being able to reviſit their native country, they ſunk into a kind of melancholy diſorder, and expired.

covered with verdure. In ſome places they are ſaid to have found a conſiderable quantity of ore, every hundred pounds of which yielded twenty-ſix ounces of ſilver. The ſame Admiral Lindenow made another voyage to the coaſt of Greenland in the year 1606, directing his courſe to the weſtward of cape Farewell. He coaſted along the ſtraits of Davis, and having made ſome obſervations on the face of the country, the harbours and iſlands, returned to Denmark. Carſten Richards, being detached with two ſhips on the ſame diſcovery, deſcried the high land on the eaſtern ſide of Greenland, but was hindered by the ice from approaching the ſhore.

Other expeditions of the ſame nature have been planned and executed with the ſame bad ſucceſs, under the auſpices of a Daniſh company of merchants. Two ſhips returned from the weſtern part of Greenland loaded with a kind of yellow ſand, ſuppoſed to contain a large proportion of gold. This being aſſayed by the goldſmiths of Copenhagen, was condemned as uſeleſs, and thrown overboard; but from a ſmall quantity of this ſand, which was reſerved as a curioſity, an expert chemiſt afterwards extracted a quantity of pure gold. The captain, who brought home this adventure, was ſo chagrined at his diſappointment, that he died of grief, without having left any directions concerning the place where the ſand had been diſcovered. In the year 1654, Henry Moller, a rich Dane, equipped a veſſel under the command of David de Nelles, who ſailed to the weſt coaſt of Greenland, from which he carried off three women of the country. Other efforts have been made, under the encouragement of the Daniſh king, for the diſcovery and recovery of the old Iceland colony in Greenland; but all of them miſcarried, and people began to look upon ſuch expeditions as wild and chimerical. At length the Greenland company at Bergen in Norway, tranſported a colony to the weſtern coaſt, about the ſixty-fourth degree of latitude; and theſe Norwegians ſailed in the year 1712, accompanied by the Rev. Hans Egede, to whoſe care, ability and preciſion, we owe the beſt and moſt authentic account of modern Greenland. This gentleman endeavoured to reach the eaſtern diſtrict, by coaſting ſouthwards, and advanced as far as the States Promontory; but the ſeaſon of the year, and continual ſtorms, obliged him to return; and, as he could not even find the ſtrait of Frobiſher, he concluded, that no ſuch place ever exiſted. In the year 1724, a ſhip, being equipped by the company, ſailed on this diſcovery, with a view to land on the eaſt ſide oppoſite to Iceland; but the vaſt

ſhoals

ſhoals of ice, which barricadoed that part of the coaſt, rendered this ſcheme impracticable. His Daniſh majeſty, in the year 1728, cauſed horſes to be tranſported to Greenland, in hope that the ſettlers might by their means travel over land to the eaſtern coaſt; but the icy mountains were found impaſſable. Finally, Lieutenant Richards, in a ſhip which had wintered near the new Daniſh colony, attempted, in his return to Denmark, to land on the eaſtern ſhore; but all his endeavours proved abortive.

Mr. Egede is of opinion, that the only practicable method of reaching that part of the country, will be to coaſt north-about in ſmall veſſels, between the great flakes of ice and the ſhore; as the Greenlanders have declared, that the currents continually ruſhing from the bays and inlets, and running ſouth-weſtwards along the ſhore, hinder the ice from adhering to the land; ſo that there is always a channel open, through which veſſels of ſmall burden might paſs, eſpecially if lodges were built at convenient diſtances on the ſhore, for the convenience and direction of the adventurers.

That part of the country which is now viſited and ſettled by the Danes and Norwegians, lies between the ſixty-fourth and ſixty-eighth degrees of north latitude; and thus far it is ſaid the climate is temperate. In the ſummer, which continues from the end of May to the middle of September, the weather is warm and comfortable, while the wind blows eaſterly; though even at this time ſtorms frequently happen, which rage with incredible violence; and the ſea coaſts are infeſted with fogs that are equally diſagreeable and unhealthy. Near the ſhore, and in the bays and inlets, the low land is clothed with the moſt charming verdure; but the inland mountains are perpetually covered with ice and ſnow. To the northward of the ſixty-eighth degree of latitude the cold is prodigiouſly intenſe; and towards the end of Auguſt all the coaſt is covered with ice, which never thaws till April or May, and ſometimes not till the latter end of June. Nothing can exhibit a more dreadful, and at the ſame time a more dazzling, appearance, than thoſe prodigious maſſes of ice that ſurround the whole coaſt in various forms, reflecting a multitude of colours from the ſun-beams, and calling to mind the enchanted ſcenes of romance. Such proſpects they yield in calm weather; but when the wind begins to blow, and the waves to riſe in vaſt billows, the violent ſhocks of thoſe pieces of ice daſhing againſt one another, fill the mind with horror. Greenland is ſeldom viſited with thunder and lightning, but the aurora borealis is very frequent

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and bright. At the time of new and full moon, the tide riſes and falls upon this coaſt about three fathoms; and it is remarkable, that the ſprings and fountains on ſhore riſe and fall with the flux and reflux of the ocean.

The ſoil of Greenland varies like that of all other mountainous countries: the hills are very barren, being indeed frozen throughout the whole year; but the valleys and low grounds, eſpecially near the ſea, are rich and fruitful. The ancient Norwegian chronicles inform us, that Greenland formerly produced a great number of cattle; and that conſiderable quantities of butter and cheeſe were exported to Norway; and, on account of their peculiar excellency, ſet apart for the king's uſe. The ſame hiſtories informs us, that ſome parts of the country yielded excellent wheat; and that large oaks were found here, which carried acorns as big as apples. Some of theſe oaks ſtill remain in the ſouthern parts, and in many places the marks of ploughed land are eaſily perceived: at preſent, however, the country is deſtitute of corn and cattle, though in many places it produces excellent paſture, and, if properly cultivated, would probably yield grain alſo. Mr. Egede ſowed ſome barley in a bay adjoining to the Daniſh colony; it ſprang up ſo faſt, that by the latter end of July it was in the full ear; but being nipped by a night froſt it never arrived at maturity. This ſeed was brought from Bergen, where the ſummer is of greater heat and duration than in Greenland; but in all probability the corn which grows in the northern parts of Norway would alſo thrive here. Turnips and coleworts of an excellent taſte and flavour are alſo produced here. The ſides of the mountains near the bays are clothed with wild thyme, which diffuſes its fragrance to a great diſtance. The herb tormentil is very common in this country, and likewiſe many others not deſcribed by the botaniſts. Among the fruits of Greenland we number juniper-berries, blue-berries, bil-berries and bramble-berries.

Greenland is thought to contain many mines of metal, though none of them are wrought. To the ſouthward of the Daniſh colony are ſome appearances of a mine of copper. Mr. Egede once received a lump of ore from one of the natives, and here he found calamine of a yellow colour. He once ſent a conſiderable quantity of ſand of a yellow colour, intermixed with ſtreaks of vermilion, to the Bergen company: they probably found their account in this preſent; for they deſired him, by a letter, to procure as much of

that

that ſand as poſſible; but he was never able to find the place where he ſaw the firſt ſpecimen. It was one of the ſmalleſt among a great number of iſlands, and the mark he had ſet up was blown down by a violent ſtorm: poſſibly this might be the ſame mineral of which Captain Frobiſher brought ſo much to England. This country produces rock-cryſtals both red and white, and whole mountains of the aſbeſtos or incombuſtible flax. Around the colony, which is known by the name of Good Hope, they find a kind of baſtard marble of various colours, which the natives form into bowls, lamps, pots, &c. All that has been ſaid of the fertility of Greenland, however, muſt be underſtood only of that part which lies between the ſixtieth and ſixty-fifth degrees of latitude: the moſt northern parts are totally deſtitute of herbs and plants. The wretched inhabitants cannot find graſs in ſufficient quantities to ſtuff into their ſhoes to keep their feet warm, but are obliged to buy it from thoſe who inhabit the more ſouthern parts.

The animals which abound moſt in Greenland are, rein-deer, foxes, hares, dogs and white bears. The hares are of a white colour and very fat; the foxes are of different colours, white, greyiſh and blueiſh, and ſmaller than thoſe of Denmark and Norway. The natives keep a great number of dogs, which are large, white or ſpeckled, and rough, with ears ſtanding upright, as is the caſe with all the dogs peculiar to cold climates; they are timorous and ſtupid, and neither bay nor bark, but ſometimes howl diſmally. In the northern parts the natives yoke them in ſledges, which, though heavy laden, they will draw on the ice at the rate of ſeventy miles in a ſhort winter's day. Theſe poor animals are very ill rewarded for their ſervice, being left to provide for themſelves, except when their maſters happen to catch a great number of ſeals: on theſe occaſions the dogs are regaled with the blood and entrails; at other times they ſubſiſt, like wild beaſts, upon muſcles and berries. Here alſo are found great numbers of ravens, eagles of a prodigious ſize, falcons, and other birds of prey; and likewiſe a kind of linnet, which warbles very melodiouſly. Whales, ſword-fiſh, porpoiſes, &c. abound on the coaſts; alſo holybut, turbot, cod, haddock, &c. The more dubious animals alſo, called mermaids, ſea-ſerpents and krakens, ſaid to be found on the coaſt of Norway, are ſaid likewiſe to dwell in theſe ſeas. Mr. Egede aſſures us, that in the year 1734 the ſea-ſerpent was ſeen off the new Daniſh colony, and raiſed its head maſt-high above the ſurface of the water.

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The people who now inhabit the weſtern coaſt of Greenland, and who, without doubt, are the deſcendants of the ancient Schrellings, who exterminated the firſt Iceland colony, bear a near reſemblance to the Samoiedes and Laplanders in their perſons, complexions, and way of life: they are ſhort, brawny, and inclined to corpulency, with broad faces, flat noſes, thick lips, black hair and eyes, and a yellowiſh tawny complexion: they are for the moſt part vigorous and healthy, but remarkably ſhort-lived, few of them reaching the grand climacteric, and many dying in their infancy and in the prime of youth: they are ſubject to a weakneſs in the eyes, occaſioned by the piercing winds and the glare of the ſnow in the winter-time: the leproſy is known among them, but is not contagious. Thoſe that dwell in the northern parts are miſerably tormented with dyſenteries, rheums, and pulmonary diſorders, boils and epilepſy. The ſmall-pox being imported among them from Copenhagen in the year 1734, made terrible havoc among theſe poor people, who are utterly deſtitute of any knowledge of the the medicinal art, and depend entirely for aſſiſtance upon their angekuts or conjurers. In their diſpoſitions the Greenlanders are cold, phlegmatic, indolent and ſlow of apprehenſion, but very quiet, orderly and good-natured: they live peaceably together, and have every thing in common, without ſtrife, envying or animoſity: they are civil and hoſpitable, but ſlovenly to a degree almoſt beyond the Hottentots themſelves; they never waſh themſelves with water, but lick their paws like the cat, and then rub their faces with them. They eat after their dogs without waſhing their diſhes; devour the lice which devour them; and even lick the ſweat which they ſcrape off from their faces with their knives. The women waſh themſelves with their own urine, which they imagine makes their hair grow, and in the winter-time go out immediately after, to let the liquor freeze upon their ſkin. They will often eat their victuals off the dirty ground, without any veſſel to hold it in, and devour rotten fleſh with the greateſt avidity. In times of ſcarcity they will ſubſiſt on pieces of old ſkin, reeds, ſea-weed, and a root called tugloronet, dreſſed with train oil and fat. The dung of rein-deer taken from the inteſtines, the entrails of partridges, and all ſorts of offals, are counted dainties among theſe ſavages; and of the ſcrapings of ſeals ſkins they make *delicate* pancakes. At firſt they could not taſte the Daniſh proviſions without abhorrence, but now they are become extremely fond of bread and butter, though they ſtill re-

tain an averſion to tobacco and ſpirituous liquors; in which particular they differ from almoſt all ſavages on the face of the earth.

The Greenlanders commonly content themſelves with one wife, who is condemned, as among other ſavage nations, to do all the drudgery, and may be corrected, or even divorced, by the huſband at pleaſure. Heroes, however, and extraordinary perſonages, are indulged with a plurality of wives. Their young women are generally chaſte and baſhful; but at ſome of their feaſts, in the midſt of their jollity, a man retires with his neighbour's wife behind a curtain made of ſkins; and all the gueſts, thus coupled, retire in their turns. The women think themſelves happy if an angekut or prophet will thus honour them with his careſſes. Theſe people never marry within the prohibited degrees of conſanguinity, nor is it counted decent in a couple to marry who have been educated in the ſame family. They have a number of ridiculous and ſuperſtitious cuſtoms; among which the two following are the moſt remarkable:—While a woman is in labour, the goſſips hold a chamber-pot over her head, as a charm to haſten the delivery. When the child is a year old, the mother licks and ſlabbers it all over, to render it, as ſhe imagines, more ſtrong and hardy.

All the Greenlanders hitherto known, ſpeak the ſame language, though different dialects prevail in different parts of the country: it abounds with double conſonants, and is ſo guttural, that the pronunciation of many words is not to be learned except by thoſe who have been accuſtomed to it from their infancy. The letters C, D, F, Q and X, are not known in their alphabet. Like the North-Americans, and inhabitants of Kamſchatka, they have a great number of long polyſyllables. Their words, nouns as well as verbs, are inflected at the end by varying the terminations without the help of articles; but their language being found defective, they have adopted a good many words from the Norwegian dialect. Notwithſtanding the endeavours of the Daniſh miſſionaries, they have no great reaſon to boaſt of the proſelytes they have made of the natives of Greenland. Theſe ſavages pay great deference and reſpect to the Danes, whom indeed they obey as their maſters, and hear the truths of the Chriſtian religion expounded without doubting the veracity of their teachers; but at the ſame time they liſten with the moſt mortifying indifference, without being in the leaſt influenced by what they have heard. They believe in the immortality of the ſoul, and the exiſtence of a ſpirit whom they call Torngarſuk, but

of whom they have formed the moſt ridiculous notions.* The Angekuts, who are ſuppoſed to be his immediate miniſters, differ con-

* The firſt miſſionaries among the Greenlanders entertained a doubt whether they had any conception of a Divine Being, as they had no word in their language by which to deſignate him. When they were aſked who made the heaven and earth, and all viſible things? their anſwer was—"We know not; or, we do not know him; or, it muſt have been ſome mighty perſon; or, things always have been as they are, and will always remain ſo." But when they underſtood their language better, they found they had ſome vague notions concerning the ſoul and ſpirits, and were ſolicitous about the ſtate after death. It was evident alſo that they had ſome faint conceptions of a Divine Being.

They believe in the doctrine of the tranſmigration of ſouls—that the ſoul is a ſpiritual eſſence quite different from the body—that it needs no corporeal nouriſhment—that it ſurvives the body, and lives in a future better ſtate, which they believe will never end. But they have very different ideas of this ſtate. Many place their Elyſium in the abyſſes of the ocean, or the bowels of the earth, and think the deep cavities of the rocks are avenues leading to it. There dwells Torngarſuck and his mother; there a joyous ſummer is perpetual, and a ſhining ſun is obſcured by no night; there is the limpid ſtream, and abundance of fowls, fiſhes, rein-deer, and their beloved ſeals, and theſe are all to be caught without toil, nay, they are even found in a great kettle boiling alive. But to theſe delightful ſeats none muſt approach but thoſe who have been dextrous and diligent at their work, (for this is their grand idea of virtue) that have performed great exploits, and have maſtered many whales and ſeals, have undergone great hardſhips, have been drowned in the ſea, or died in childbed. The diſembodied ſpirit does not enter dancing into the Elyſian fields, but muſt ſpend five whole days, ſome ſay longer, in ſliding down a rugged rock, which is thereby ſmeared with blood and gore. Thoſe unfortunate ſouls which are obliged to perform this rough journey in the cold winter, or in boiſterous weather, are peculiar objects of their pity, becauſe they may be eaſily deſtroyed on the road, which deſtruction they call the ſecond death, and deſcribe it as a perfect extinction, and this, to them, is the moſt dreadful conſideration. Therefore during theſe five days or more, the ſurviving relations muſt abſtain from certain meats, and from all noiſy work, except the neceſſary fiſhing, that the ſoul may not be diſturbed or periſh in its perilous paſſage. From all which, it is plain, that the Greenlanders, ſtupid as they have been repreſented, have an idea that the good will be rewarded, and the bad puniſhed, and that they conceive a horror at the thought of the entire annihilation of the ſoul.

Others have their paradiſe among the celeſtial bodies, and they imagine their flight thither ſo eaſy and rapid, that the ſoul reſts the very ſame evening in the manſion of the moon, who was a Greenlander, and there it can dance and play at ball with the reſt of the ſouls; for they think the northern lights to be the dance of ſportive ſouls. The ſouls in this paradiſe are placed in tents round a vaſt lake abounding with fiſh and fowl. When this lake overflows it rains on the earth, but ſhould the dam once break, there would be a general deluge.

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concerning the principles of his exiſtence; ſome affirming that he is without form or ſhape; others, that he has the ſhape of a bear; others, that he has a large human body with only one arm; while others affirm, that he is no larger than a man's finger, with many other abſurdities of a ſimilar kind. They have alſo a peculiar kind of mythology, by which they believe all the elements to be full of ſpirits, from among which every one of their prophets is ſupplied with a familiar which they name Torngack, and who is always ready when ſummoned to his aſſiſtance.

The Greenlanders are employed all the year round either in fiſhing or hunting. At ſea they purſue the whales, morſes, ſeals, fiſh for eating, and ſea fowl. On ſhore they hunt the rein-deer in different parts of the country: they drive theſe animals, which feed in large herds, into a narrow circle or defile, where they are eaſily ſlain with arrows. Their bow is made of fir-tree, wound about with the twiſted ſinews of animals; the ſtring is compoſed of the ſame ſtuff, or of ſeal ſkin; the arrow is a good fathom in length, pointed with a bearded iron, or a ſharp bone; but thoſe with which they kill birds are blunt, that they may not tear the fleſh. Sea fowls they kill with lances, which they throw to a great diſtance with ſurpriſing dexterity. Their manner of catching whales is quite different from that practiſed by the Europeans: about fifty perſons, men and women, ſet out in one long boat, which is called a *kone boat*, from *kone* a "woman," becauſe it is rowed by females only. When they find a whale, they ſtrike him with harpoons, to which are faſtened with long lines ſome ſeal ſkins blown up like bladders. Theſe, by floating on the ſurface, not only diſcover the back of the whale, but hinder him from diving under water for any length of time. They continue to purſue him until he loſes ſtrength, when they pierce him with ſpears and lances till he expires. On this occaſion they are clad in their ſpring coats, conſiſting of one piece, with gloves, boots, and caps made of ſeal ſkin ſo cloſely laced and ſewed that they

The wiſer Greenlanders, who conſider the ſoul as a ſpiritual immaterial eſſence, laugh at all this, and ſay, if there ſhould be ſuch a material, luxuriant paradiſe, where ſouls could entertain themſelves with hunting, ſtill it can only endure for a time; afterwards the ſouls will certainly be conveyed to the peaceful manſions: but they know not what their food or employment will be. On the other hand, they place their hell in the ſubterraneous regions, which are devoid of light and heat, and filled with perpetual terror and anxiety. This laſt ſort of people lead a regular life, and refrain from every thing they think is evil.

keep out water. Thus accoutred they leap into the ſea, and begin to ſlice off the fat, even under water, before the whale is dead.—They have many different ways of killing ſeals; namely, by ſtriking them with a ſmall harpoon equipped alſo with an air bag; by watching them when they come to breathe at the air-holes in the ice, and ſtriking them with ſpears; by approaching them in the diſguiſe of their own ſpecies, that is, covered with a ſeal ſkin, creeping upon the ice, and moving the head from ſide to ſide as the ſeals are accuſtomed to do. By this ſtratagem the Greenlandler moves towards the unſuſpecting ſeal, and kills him with a ſpear. The Greenlanders angle with lines made of whalebone cut very ſmall, by means of which they ſucceed wonderfully. The Greenland canoe, like that uſed in Nova-Zembla and Hudſon's bay, is about three fathoms in length, pointed at both ends, and three quarters of a yard in breadth; it is compoſed of thin rafts faſtened together with the ſinews of animals. It is covered with dreſſed ſeal-ſkins both below and above, in ſuch a manner that only a circular hole is left in the middle, large enough to admit the body of one man. Into this the Greenlander thruſts himſelf up to the waiſt, and faſtens the ſkin ſo tight about him that no water can enter. Thus ſecured, and armed with a paddle broad at both ends, he will venture out to ſea in the moſt ſtormy weather to catch ſeals and ſea-fowl; and if he is overſet, he can eaſily raiſe himſelf by means of his paddle. A Greenlander in one of theſe canoes, which was brought with him to Copenhagen, outſtripped a pinnace of ſixteen oars, manned with choice mariners. The kone boat is made of the ſame materials, but more durable, and ſo large that it will contain fifty perſons with all their tackle, baggage and proviſions: ſhe is fitted with a maſt, which carries a triangular ſail made of the membranes and entrails of ſeals, and is managed without the help of braces and bowlings: theſe kones are flat-bottomed, and ſometimes ſixty feet in length. The men think it beneath them to take charge of them, and therefore they are left to the conduct of the women, who indeed are obliged to do all the drudgery, including even the building and repairing their houſes, while the men employ themſelves wholly in preparing their hunting implements and fiſhing tackle.

This country is but thinly inhabited.* In the winter time the people

* Moſt of the Greenlanders live to the ſouthward of the ſixty-ſecond degree of north latitude, or as the inhabitants are wont to ſay, in the ſouth; but no Europeans live

people dwell in huts built of ſtone or turf; on the one ſide are the windows, covered with the ſkins of ſeals or rein-deer. Several families live in one of theſe houſes, poſſeſſing each a ſeparate apartment, before which is a hearth with a great lamp placed on a trevit, over which hangs their kettle; above is a rack or ſhelf on which their wet clothes are dried. They burn train oil in their lamps, and for a wick they uſe a kind of moſs, which fully anſwers the purpoſe. Theſe lamps are not only ſufficient to boil their victuals, but likewiſe produce ſuch a heat, that the whole houſe is like a bagnio. The door is very low, that as little cold air as poſſible may be admitted. The houſe within is lined with old ſkins, and ſurrounded with benches for the conveniency of ſtrangers. In the ſummer time they dwell in tents made of long poles fixed in a conical form, covered in the inſide with deers ſkins, and on the outſide with ſeals ſkins, dreſſed ſo that the rain cannot pierce them.

EAST GREENLAND.

Eaſt-Greenland was for a long time conſidered as a part of the continent of Weſt-Greenland, but is now diſcovered to be an aſſemblage of iſlands lying between 76° 46′ and 80° 30′ of north latitude, and between 9° and 20° of eaſt longitude. It was diſcovered by Sir Hugh Willoughby in the year 1553, who called it Groenland, ſuppoſing it to be a part of the weſtern continent. In 1595, it was again viſited by William Barentz and John Cornelius, two Dutchmen, who pretended to be the original diſcoverers, and called the country Spitzbergen, or Sharp Mountains, from the many ſharp-

live there, ſo that theſe parts are but little known. The European colonies have fixed themſelves to the northward of the ſixty-ſecond degree of latitude.

A factor, who lived many years in the country, and whoſe accuracy, as far as the ſubject will admit, may be depended on, found, in the compaſs of forty leagues, which was the circle of his dealings, nine hundred and fifty-ſeven conſtant reſidents, beſides occaſional viſitors. This part of Greenland is the moſt populous, except Diſko bay, which is the beſt place for trade, and the ſouthern parts. In other places, an individual may travel ſixty miles and not meet with a ſingle perſon. Suppoſe, however, that the country is inhabited for the ſpace of four hundred leagues, and that there are one thouſand ſouls for every forty leagues, the amount would be ten thouſand. The above-mentioned factor thinks, that there are not more than ſeven thouſand, becauſe there are ſo many deſert places. He aſſerts, indeed, that the native Greenlanders, in 1730, amounted to thirty thouſand; and when he made his firſt calculation in 1746, there were ſtill twenty thouſand: conſequently, ſince that time, their number has diminiſhed at leaſt one-half.

pointed and rocky mountains with which it abounds. They alledged, that the coaſt diſcovered by Sir Hugh Willoughby was ſome other country; which accordingly the Hollanders delineated on their maps and charts by the name of Willoughby Land; whereas in fact no ſuch land ever exiſted; and long before the voyage of theſe Dutchmen, Stephen Barrows, an Engliſh ſhipmaſter, had coaſted along a deſolate country from north latitude 78° to 80° 11′, which was undoubtedly Spitzbergen. The ſea in the neighbourhood of the iſlands of Spitzbergen abounds very much with whales, and is the common reſort of the whale-fiſhing ſhips from different countries, and the country itſelf is frequently viſited by theſe ſhips; but till the late voyage of the Hon. Capt. Phipps, by order of his Majeſty, the ſituation of it was erroneouſly laid down. It was imagined, that the land ſtretched to the northward as far as 82° of north latitude; but Capt. Phipps found the moſt northerly point of land, called Seven Iſlands, not to exceed 80° 30′ of latitude. Towards the eaſt he ſaw other lands lying at a diſtance, ſo that Spitzbergen plainly appeared to be ſurrounded by water on that ſide, and not joined to the continent of Aſia, as former navigators had ſuppoſed. The north and weſt coaſts alſo he explored, but was prevented by the ice from ſailing ſo far to the northward as he wiſhed. The coaſt appeared neither habitable nor acceſſible: it is formed of high, barren, black rocks, without the leaſt marks of vegetation; in many places bare and pointed, in others covered with ſnow, appearing even above the clouds. The valleys between the high cliffs were filled with ſnow and ice. "This proſpect," ſays Capt. Phipps, "would have ſuggeſted the idea of perpetual winter, had not the mildneſs of the weather, the ſmooth water, bright ſunſhine, and conſtant day-light, given a cheerfulneſs and novelty to the whole of this romantic ſcene." The current ran along this coaſt half a knot an hour, north. The height of one mountain ſeen here was found, by geometrical menſuration, to be at one time one thouſand five hundred and three feet and a half, at another one thouſand five hundred and three feet and eight-tenths. By a barometer conſtructed after De Luc's method, the height was found to be one thouſand five hundred and eighty-eight feet and a half. On this occaſion Capt. Phipps has the following remarks: "I cannot account for the great difference between the geometrical meaſure and the barometrical according to M. De Luc's calculation, which amounts to eighty-four feet ſeven inches. I have no reaſon to doubt the accu-

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racy of Dr. Irving's obſervations, which were made with great care. As to the geometrical meaſure, the agreement of ſo many triangles, each of which muſt have diſcovered even the ſmalleſt error, is the moſt ſatisfactory proof of its correctneſs. Since my return, I have tried both the theodolite and barometer, to diſcover whether there was any fault in either, and find them, upon trial, as I had always done before, very accurate."

There is good anchorage in Schmeerenburgh harbour, lying in north latitude 74° 41′, eaſt longitude 9° 50′ 45″, in thirteen fathom, ſandy bottom, not far from the ſhore, and well ſheltered from all winds. Cloſe to this harbour is an iſland called Amſterdam Iſland, where the Dutch uſed formerly to boil their whale oil; and the remains of ſome conveniency erected by them for that purpoſe are ſtill viſible. The Dutch ſhips ſtill reſort to this place for the latter ſeaſon of the whale fiſhery.—The ſtone about this place is chiefly a kind of marble, which diſſolves eaſily in the marine acid. There were no appearance of minerals of any kind, nor any ſigns of ancient or modern volcanoes. No inſects, nor any ſpecies of reptiles, were ſeen, not even the common earth worm. There were no ſprings or rivers, but great plenty of water was produced from the ſnow which melted on the mountains.

The moſt remarkable views which theſe dreary regions preſent are thoſe called Icebergs. They are large bodies of ice filling the valleys between the high mountains: their face towards the ſea is nearly perpendicular, and of a very lively light green colour. One was about three hundred feet high, with a caſcade of water iſſuing from it. The black mountains on each ſide, the white ſnow, and greeniſh coloured ice, compoſed a very beautiful and romantic picture. Large pieces frequently broke off from the icebergs, and fell with great noiſe into the water: one piece was obſerved to have floated out into the bay, and grounded in twenty-four fathoms; it was fifty feet high above the ſurface of the water, and of the ſame beautiful colour with the iceberg from which it had ſeparated.

Theſe iſlands are totally uninhabited, though it doth not appear but that human creatures could ſubſiſt on them, notwithſtanding their vicinity to the pole. Eight Engliſh ſailors, who were accidentally left here by a whale-fiſhing ſhip, ſurvived the winter, and were brought home next ſeaſon. The Dutch then attempted to ſettle a colony on Amſterdam iſland above mentioned, but all the people periſhed, not through the ſeverity of the climate, but of the

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ſcurvy, owing to the want of thoſe remedies which are now happily diſcovered, and which are found to be ſo effectual in preventing and curing that dreadful diſeaſe. The late account alſo of ſix Ruſſian ſailors, who ſtaid four years in this inhoſpitable country, affords a deciſive proof, that a colony might be ſettled on Eaſt-Greenland, provided the doing ſo could anſwer any good purpoſe.

A Greenland company was formed in London in the year 1693. A joint ſtock of forty thouſand pounds was by ſtatute to be raiſed by ſubſcribers, who were incorporated for fourteen years from the firſt day of October in that year; and the company to uſe the trade of catching whales, &c. to and from Greenland, and the Greenland ſeas; they may make bye-laws for the government of the perſons employed in their ſhips, &c. Stat. 4 & 5 W. III. cap. 17. This company was farther encouraged by parliament in 1696; but partly by unſkilful management, and partly by real loſſes, it was under a neceſſity of entirely breaking up, before the expiration of the term aſſigned to it, ending in 1707. But any perſon who will adventure to Greenland for whale-fiſhing, has all privileges granted to the Greenland company, by 1 Anne, cap. 16. and thus the trade was again laid open. Any ſubjects may import whale fins, oil, &c. of fiſh caught in the Greenland ſeas, without paying any cuſtoms, &c. Stat. 10 Geo. I. cap. 16. And ſhips employed in the Greenland fiſhery are to be of ſuch burden, provided with boats, ſo many men, fiſhing lines, harping irons, &c. and be licenſed to proceed; and on their return are paid twenty ſhillings per ton bounty, for whale fins, &c. imported; 6 Geo. II. cap. 33. The bounty was afterwards increaſed, but has been lately diminiſhed, and ſince this diminution the trade has increaſed.

HISTORY

OF THE

SPANISH DOMINIONS

IN

NORTH-AMERICA.

EAST AND WEST-FLORIDA.

SITUATION, BOUNDARY AND EXTENT.

EAST and Weſt-Florida are ſituated between 25° and 31° north latitude, and 5° and 17° weſt-longitude from Philadelphia; the length is about ſix hundred miles, and the breadth about one hundred and thirty. They are bounded north, by Georgia; eaſt, by the Atlantic ocean; ſouth, by the gulph of Mexico; weſt, by the Miſſiſſippi; lying in the form of an *L*. The climate varies very little from that of Georgia. Florida was firſt diſcovered in 1497, by Sebaſtian Cabot, a Venetian, then in the Engliſh ſervice; whence a right to the country was claimed by the kings of England; and this territory, as well as Georgia, was included in the charter granted by Charles II. to Carolina. In 1512, however, Florida was more fully diſcovered by Ponce de Leon, an able Spaniſh navigator, but who undertook his voyage from the moſt abſurd motives that can well

well be imagined. The Indians of the Caribbee iſlands had among them a tradition, that ſomewhere on the continent there was a fountain, whoſe waters had the property of reſtoring youth to all old men who taſted them. The romantic imaginations of the Spaniards were delighted with the idea. Many embarked in voyages to find out this imaginary fountain, who were never afterwards heard of. Their ſuperſtitious countrymen never imagined that theſe people had periſhed. They concluded that they did not return, only becauſe they had drank of the immortalizing liquor, and had diſcovered a ſpot ſo delightful, that they did not chooſe to leave it. Ponce de Leon ſet out with this extravagant view as well as others, fully perſuaded of the exiſtence of a third world, the conqueſt of which was to immortalize his name. In the attempt to diſcover this country, he rediſcovered Florida, but returned viſibly more advanced in years than when he ſet out on his voyage. For ſome time this country was neglected by the Spaniards, and ſome Frenchmen ſettled in it. But the new colony being neglected by the miniſtry, and Philip II. of Spain having accuſtomed himſelf to think that he was the ſole proprietor of America, fitted out a fleet at Cadiz to deſtroy them. His orders were executed with barbarity; the French entrenchments were forced, and moſt of the people killed. The priſoners were hanged on trees, with this inſcription, "Not as French-"men, but as heretics."

The cruelty was ſoon after revenged by Dominic de Gourgues, a ſkilful and intrepid ſeaman of Gaſcony, an enemy to the Spaniards, and paſſionately fond of hazardous expeditions and glory. He ſold his eſtates, built ſome ſhips, and with a ſelect band of adventurers like himſelf, embarked for Florida. He drove the Spaniards from all their poſts with incredible valour and activity, defeated them in every rencounter, and by way of retaliation, hung the priſoners on trees, with this inſcription, "Not as Spaniards, but as aſſaſſins." This expedition was attended with no other conſequences; Gourgues blew up the forts he had taken, and returned home, where no notice was taken of him. It was again conquered in 1539, by the Spaniards under Ferdinand de Soto, not without a great deal of bloodſhed, as the natives were very warlike, and made a vigorous reſiſtance. The ſettlement, however, was not fully eſtabliſhed till the year 1665, when the town of St. Auguſtine, the capital of the colony while it remained in the hands of the Spaniards, was founded. In 1586, this place was taken and pillaged by Sir Francis Drake. It met with the ſame fate

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in 1665, being taken and plundered by Captain Davis, and a body of buccaneers. In 1702, an attempt was made upon it by Colonel More, governor of Carolina. He ſet out with five hundred Engliſh and ſeven hundred Indians; and having reached St. Auguſtine, he beſieged it for three months, at the expiration of which, the Spaniards having ſent ſome ſhips to the relief of the place, he was obliged to retire. In 1740, another attempt was made by General Oglethorpe; but he being outwitted by the Spaniſh governor, was forced to raiſe the ſiege with loſs, and Florida continued in the hands of the Spaniards till the year 1763, when it was ceded by treaty to Great-Britain. During the laſt war it was again reduced by his Catholic Majeſty, and was guaranteed to the crown of Spain at the peace.

Among the rivers that flow through this territory, and fall into the Atlantic ſea, St. John's and Indian rivers are the principal. St. John's river riſes in or near a large ſwamp, in the heart of Eaſt-Florida, and purſues a northern courſe in a broad navigable ſtream, which, in ſeveral places, ſpreads into broad bays or lakes. Lake George, which is only a dilatation of the river, is a beautiful piece of water, generally about fifteen miles broad, and from fifteen to twenty feet deep. It is ornamented with ſeveral charming iſlands, one of which is an orange grove, interſperſed with magnolias and palm trees. Near Long lake, which is two miles long and four wide, and which communicates with St. John's river by a ſmall creek, is a vaſt fountain of warm, or rather hot mineral water, iſſuing from a high bank on the river; it boils up with great force, forming immediately a vaſt circular baſon, capacious enough for ſeveral ſhallops to ride in, and runs with rapidity into the river, at three or four hundred yards diſtance: the water is perfectly clear, and the prodigious number and variety of fiſh in it, while ſwimming many feet deep, appear as plainly as though lying on the table before your eyes: the water has a diſagreeable taſte, and ſmells like bilge water. This river enters into the Atlantic, north of St. Auguſtine.—Indian river riſes a ſhort diſtance from the ſea coaſt, and runs from north to ſouth, forming a kind of inland paſſage for many miles along the coaſt.—Seguana, Apalachicola, Chatahatchi, Eſcambia, Mobile, Paſcagoula, and Pearl rivers, all riſe in Georgia, and run ſoutherly into the gulph of Mexico.

There are, in this territory, a great variety of ſoils. The eaſtern part of it, near and about St. Auguſtine, is far the moſt unfruitful; yet even here two crops of Indian corn are produced. The banks of the rivers which water the Floridas, and the parts contiguous, are of

a ſuperior quality, and well adapted to the culture of rice and corn, while the more interior country, which is high and pleaſant, abounds with wood of almoſt every kind; particularly white and red oak, live oak, laurel magnolia, pine, hiccory, cypreſs, red and white cedar. The live oaks, though not tall, contain a prodigious quantity of timber: the trunk is generally from twelve to twenty feet in circumference, and riſes ten or twelve feet from the earth, and then branches into four or five great limbs, which grow in nearly a horizontal direction, forming a gentle curve. "I have ſtepped," ſays Bartram,* "above fifty paces, on a ſtraight line, from the trunk of one of theſe "trees to the extremity of the limbs." They are ever green, and the wood almoſt incorruptible. They bear a great quantity of ſmall acorns, which are agreeable food, when roaſted, and from which the Indians extract a ſweet oil, which they uſe in cooking homminy and rice.

The laurel magnolia is the moſt beautiful among the trees of the foreſt, and is uſually one hundred feet high, though ſome are much higher. The trunk is perfectly erect, riſing in the form of a beautiful column, and ſupporting a head like an obtuſe cone. The flowers are on the extremities of the branches; are large, white, and expanded like a roſe, and are the largeſt and moſt complete of any yet known; when fully expanded, they are from ſix to nine inches diameter, and have a moſt delicious fragrance. The cypreſs is the largeſt of the American trees. "I have ſeen trunks of theſe "trees," ſays Bartram, "that would meaſure eight, ten, and twelve "feet in diameter, for forty and fifty feet ſtraight ſhaft." The trunks make excellent ſhingles, boards, and other timber; and when hollowed, make durable and convenient canoes. "When the planters "fell theſe mighty trees, they raiſe a ſtage around them, as high as "to reach above the buttreſſes; on this ſtage eight or ten negroes aſ-"cend with their axes, and fall to work round its trunk."

The intervals between the hilly part of this country are extremely rich, and produce ſpontaneouſly the fruits and vegetables that are common to Georgia and the Carolinas. But this country is rendered valuable in a peculiar manner by its extenſive ranges for cattle.

St. Auguſtine, the capital of Eaſt-Florida, is ſituated on the ſea coaſt, latitude 29° 45′; is of an oblong figure, and interſected by four ſtreets, which cut each other at right angles. The town is fortified with baſtions, and incloſed with a ditch: it is likewiſe defended

* Travels, page 85.

by

by a caſtle, called fort St. John, which is well appointed as to ordnance. The north and ſouth breakers, at the entrance of the harbour, form two channels, whoſe bars have eight feet water.

The principal town in Weſt-Florida is Penſacola, latitude 30° 22′. It lies along the beach, and, like St. Auguſtine, is of an oblong form. The water approaches to the town except for ſmall veſſels, are obſtructed by a low and ſandy ſhore. The bay, however, on which the town ſtands, forms a very commodious harbour, and veſſels may ride there ſecure from every wind. The exports from this town, conſiſting of ſkins, logwood, dying ſtuff, and ſilver dollars, amounted, while in the poſſeſſion of the Britiſh, on an average, to ſixty-three thouſand pounds annually; the average value of imports, for three years, from Great-Britain, was ninety-ſeven thouſand pounds.

LOUISIANA.

LOUISIANA is bounded by the Miſſiſſippi, on the eaſt; by the gulf of Mexico, on the ſouth; by New-Mexico, on the weſt; and runs indefinitely north. Under the French government Louiſiana included both ſides of the Miſſiſſippi, from its mouth to the Illinois, and back from the river, eaſt and weſt indefinitely.

The Miſſiſſippi, on which the fine country of Louiſiana is ſituated, was firſt diſcovered by Ferdinand de Soto, in 1541. Monſieur de la Salle was the firſt who traverſed it. He, in the year 1682, having paſſed down to the mouth of the Miſſiſſippi, and ſurveyed the adjacent country returned to Canada, from whence he took paſſage to France.

From the flattering accounts which he gave of the country, and the conſequential advantages that would accrue from ſettling a colony in thoſe parts, Louis XIV. was induced to eſtabliſh a company for the purpoſe. Accordingly a ſquadron of four veſſels, amply provided with men and proviſions, under the command of Monſieur de la Salle, embarked, with an intention of ſettling near the mouth of the Miſſiſſippi; but he unintentionally ſailed a hundred leagues to the weſtward of it, where he attempted to eſtabliſh a colony; but through the unfavourableneſs of the climate, moſt of his men miſerably periſhed, and he himſelf was villanouſly murdered, not long after, by two of his own men. Monſieur Ibberville ſucceeded him in his laudable attempts. He, after two ſucceſsful voyages, died while preparing for a third. Crozat ſucceeded him; and in 1712, the king gave him Louiſiana. This grant continued but a ſhort time after the death of Louis XIV. In 1763, Louiſiana was ceded to the king of Spain, to whom it now belongs.

This country is interſected by a number of fine rivers, among which are the St. Francis, which empties into the Miſſiſſippi at Kappas Old fort, navigable about two hundred and fifty or three hundred miles; its courſe is nearly parallel with the Miſſiſſippi, and from twenty to thirty miles diſtant from it; the Natchitoches, which

empties

empties into the Miſſiſſippi above Point Coupee; the Adayes or Mexicano river, emptying into the gulph of Mexico; and the river Rouge, on which, it is well known, are as rich ſilver mines as any in Mexico. This is ſuppoſed to be one principal reaſon why the excluſive navigation of the Miſſiſſippi has been ſo much inſiſted on by Spain.

Louiſiana is agreeably ſituated between the extremes of heat and cold; its climate varies as it extends towards the north. The ſouthern parts, lying within the reach of the refreſhing breezes from the ſea, are not ſcorched like thoſe under the ſame latitudes in Africa; and its northern regions are colder than thoſe of Europe under the ſame parallels, with a wholeſome ſerene air. To judge of the produce to be expected from the ſoil of Louiſiana, we ſhould turn our eyes to Egypt, Arabia Felix, Perſia, India, China, and Japan, all lying in correſponding latitudes. Of theſe, China alone has a tolerable government; and yet it muſt be acknowledged, they all are, or have been, famous for their riches and fertility. From the favourableneſs of the climate, two annual crops of Indian corn may be produced; and the ſoil, with little cultivation, would furniſh grain of every kind in the greateſt abundance. The timber is as fine as any in the world, and the quantities of live oak, aſh, mulberry, walnut, cherry, cypreſs, and cedar, are aſtoniſhing. The neighbourhood of the Miſſiſſippi, beſides, furniſhes the richeſt fruits in great variety; the ſoil is particularly adapted to hemp, flax, and tobacco; and indigo is at this time a ſtaple commodity, which commonly yields the planter three or four cuttings a year. In a word, whatever is rich and rare in the moſt deſirable climates in Europe, ſeems to be the ſpontaneous production of this delightful country. The Miſſiſſippi and the neighbouring lakes furniſh in great plenty ſeveral ſorts of fiſh, particularly perch, pike, ſturgeon, and eels.

In the northern part of Louiſiana, forty-five miles below the mouth of the Ohio river, on the weſt bank of the Miſſiſſippi, a ſettlement is commenced, conducted by Colonel Morgan, of New-Jerſey, under the patronage of the Spaniſh king. The ſpot on which the city is propoſed to be built, is called New-Madrid, after the capital of Spain, and is in north latitude 36° 30′.

The limits of the new city of Madrid are to extend four miles ſouth, and two miles weſt from the river, ſo as to croſs a beautiful, living, deep lake, of the pureſt ſpring water, one hundred yards wide, and

ſeveral

ſeveral miles in length, emptying itſelf, by a conſtant rapid narrow ſtream, through the center of the city. The banks of this lake, which is called St. Annis, are high, beautiful, and pleaſant; the waters deep, clear, and ſweet; the bottom a clear ſand, free from woods, ſhrubs, or other vegetables, and well ſtored with fiſh. On each ſide of this delightful lake ſtreets are laid out, one hundred feet wide, and a road is to be continued round it of the ſame breadth; and the trees are directed to be preſerved for ever, for the health and pleaſure of the citizens. A ſtreet one hundred and twenty feet wide, on the banks of the Miſſiſſippi, is laid out, and the trees are directed to be preſerved for the ſame purpoſe. Twelve acres, in a central part of the city, are to be reſerved in like manner, to be ornamented, regulated, and improved by the magiſtracy of the city for public walks; and forty half acre lots for other public uſes; and one lot of twelve acres for the king's uſe.

New-Madrid, from its local ſituation and adventitious privileges, is in a proſpect of being the great emporium of the weſtern country, unleſs the free navigation of the Miſſiſſippi ſhould be opened to the United States: and even ſhould this deſired event take place, which probably will not without a rupture with Spain, this muſt be a place of great trade. For here will naturally center the immenſe quantities of produce that will be borne down the Illinois, the Miſſiſſippi, the Ohio, and their various branches; and if the carriers can find as good a market for their cargoes here, as at New-Orleans, or the Weſt-Indies, and can procure the articles they deſire, they will gladly ſave themſelves the difficulties and dangers of navigating the long Miſſiſſippi.

The country in the vicinity of this intended city is repreſented as excellent, in many parts beyond deſcription. The natural growth conſiſts of mulberry, locuſt, ſaſſafras, walnut, hiccory, oak, aſh, dog wood, &c. with one or more grape vines running up almoſt every tree; the grapes yield, from experiment, good red wine, in plenty and with little labour. In ſome of the low grounds grow large cypreſs trees. The country is interſperſed with prairies, and now and then a cane patch of one hundred, and ſome of one thouſand acres. Theſe prairies have no trees on them, but are fertile in graſs, flowering plants, ſtrawberries, &c. and, when cultivated, produce good crops of wheat, barley, Indian corn, flax, hemp, and tobacco, and are eaſily tilled. The climate is ſaid to be favourable for health, and to the culture of fruits of various kinds, and particularly for garden

vegetables. Iron and lead mines, and ſalt ſprings, it is aſſerted, are found in ſuch plenty as to afford an abundant ſupply of theſe neceſſary articles. The banks of the Miſſiſſippi, for many leagues in extent, commencing about twenty miles above the mouth of Ohio, are a continued chain of lime-ſtone. A fine tract of high, rich, level land, S. W. by W. and N. W. of New-Madrid, about twenty-five miles wide, extends quite to the river St. Francis.

It has been ſuppoſed by ſome, that all ſettlers who go beyond the Miſſiſſippi will be for ever loſt to the United States. There is, we believe, little danger of this, provided they are not provoked to withdraw their friendſhip. The emigrants will be made up of the citizens of the United States. They will carry along with them their manners and cuſtoms, their habits of government, religion and education; and as they are to be indulged with religious freedom, and with the privilege of making their own laws, and of conducting education upon their own plans, theſe American habits will undoubtedly be cheriſhed; if ſo, they will be Americans in fact, while they are *nominally* the ſubjects of Spain.

It is true, Spain will draw a revenue from them, but in return they will enjoy peculiar commercial advantages, the benefit of which will be experienced by the United States, and perhaps be an ample compenſation for the loſs of ſo many citizens as may migrate thither. In ſhort, this ſettlement, if conducted with judgment and prudence, might be mutually ſerviceable both to Spain and the United States; it might prevent jealouſies; leſſen national prejudices; promote religious toleration; preſerve harmony, and be a medium of trade reciprocally advantageous.

But it is well known that empire has been travelling from eaſt to weſt. Probably her laſt and broadeſt ſeat will be America. There the ſciences and arts of civilized life are to receive their higheſt improvements: there civil and religious liberty are to flouriſh, unchecked by the cruel hand of civil or eccleſiaſtical tyranny: there genius, aided by all the improvements of former ages, is to be exerted in humanizing mankind, in expanding and enriching their minds with religious and philoſophical knowledge, and in planning and executing a form of government, which will involve all the excellencies of former governments, with as few of their defects as is conſiſtent with the imperfection of human affairs, and which will be calculated to protect and unite, in a manner conſiſtent with the natural rights of mankind, the largeſt empire that ever exiſted. Elevated

ted with theſe proſpects, which are not merely the viſions of fancy, we cannot but anticipate the period, as not far diſtant, when the American empire will comprehend millions of ſouls weſt of the Miſſiſſippi. Judging upon probable grounds, the Miſſiſſippi was never deſigned as the weſtern boundary of the American empire. The God of Nature never intended that ſome of the beſt part of his earth ſhould be inhabited by the ſubjects of a monarch four thouſand miles from them. And we may venture to predict, that, when the rights of mankind ſhall be more fully known, and the knowledge of them is faſt increaſing both in Europe and America, the power of European potentates will be confined to Europe, and their preſent American dominions become, like the United States, free, ſovereign, and independent empires.

It ſeems to depend on a timely adoption of a wiſe and liberal policy on the part of Spain, whether or not there ſhall be a ſpeedy revolution in her American colonies. It is aſſerted by the beſt informed on the ſubject, that there are not a hundred Spaniſh families in all Louiſiana and Weſt-Florida; the bulk of inhabitants are French people, who are inimical to the Spaniards, and emigrants from the United States, and a few Engliſh, Scots, Dutch, and Iriſh. This was the caſe in 1791; and as all emigrations to this country have ſince been, and will probably in future be, from the United States, and theſe emigrations are numerous, the time will ſoon come, when the Anglo Americans in this country will far exceed the number of all other nations.

The wretched policy of New-Orleans, unleſs changed, will haſten a revolution in the Spaniſh colonies. So long as the governor can dictate laws and diſpenſe with them at his pleaſure, and create monopolies in trade for his own and his favourites' advantage, as is now the caſe, there can be no ſtability in the commerce of this place. The excluſive right, even of ſupplying the market with freſh beef, pork, veal, mutton, is monopolized. No farmer or planter is allowed to kill his own beef, ſwine, calf, or ſheep, and ſend it to market; he muſt ſell it to the king's butcher, as he is called, at the price he ſhall pleaſe to give; and this man retails it out at a certain price agreed upon by the governor, in juſt ſuch pieces as he thinks proper, through a window or grate. Aſk for a roaſting piece, and he will give you a rib or briſket of beef; point to the piece you want, and he will tell you it is engaged to your ſuperior. From ſimilar conduct, turkies now ſell for four or five dollars a piece, which, under the

French

French government, were in abundance for half a dollar. The monopoly of flour is, if poſſible, on ſtill a worſe footing for the inhabitant; and the tobacco inſpection yet more diſcouraging to the planter. The GOVERNOR, *or the crown, as it is called*, muſt have an undefined advantage in every thing. Hence all are ripe for a revolution the moment one ſhall offer with proſpect of being ſupported, whether it ſhall come from the United States, England, France, or internally from the inhabitants.

It is ſaid to have been the fixed reſolution of the Britiſh miniſtry to ſeize on New-Orleans, in the firſt inſtance, in caſe a rupture with Spain had taken place, as a neceſſary prelude to an attack on the Spaniſh poſſeſſions in the Weſt-Indies and on the main. For this purpoſe every bend of the river, every bay and harbour on the coaſt, have been ſurveyed and ſounded with the utmoſt exactneſs, and all of them are better known to the Britiſh than to the Spaniards themſelves.

Whilſt the United States were engaged in the revolution war againſt England, the Spaniards attacked and poſſeſſed themſelves of all the Engliſh poſts and ſettlements on the Miſſiſſippi, from the Iberville up to the Yazoos river, including the Natchez country; and by virtue of this conqueſt are now peopling and governing an extent of country three degrees north of the United States' ſouth boundary, and claiming authority which no treaties warrant. This alone will probably be deemed ſufficient cauſe for the United States to join with any other power againſt Spain, the firſt opportunity, as they conceive theſe territories belong to them by treaty. In ſuch caſe, the Kentucky country alone could, in one week, raiſe a ſufficient force to conquer all the Spaniſh poſſeſſions on the Miſſiſſippi; whilſt one thouſand men would be equal to defend the whole country of New-Orleans and Louiſiana from any enemy approaching it by ſea. The greater a hoſtile fleet entering the Miſſiſſippi, the greater and more certain would be their deſtruction, if oppoſed by men of knowledge and reſolution.*

New-

* The following extract of a letter from a gentleman at New-Orleans, dated September, 1790, contains much uſeful information, in confirmation of the above:

"When I left you and my other friends at Baltimore, laſt year, I promiſed to write to you by every opportunity, and to communicate to you every information which I could derive from my excurſion to the Ohio, down that beautiful ſtream, during my ſtay

New-Orelans ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the Miſſiſſippi, one hundred and five miles from its mouth, in latitude 30° 2′ north. In the beginning

at Kentucky and the weſtern poſts, my viſit to the Illinois and the different ſettlements on the Miſſiſſippi, from thence down to New-Orleans.

" As I have devoted more than twelve months in making this tour, with the determination to judge for myſelf, and to give you and my other friends information to be depended upon, regarding the climate, ſoil, natural productions, population, and other advantages and diſadvantages, which you may depend on finding in the country I have paſſed through, I cannot, within the narrow bounds of this letter, comply with my intention, and your wiſh, but I muſt beg of you to reſt ſatisfied with what follows:

* *

" Nearly oppoſite to Louiſville is a ſtockade fort, garriſoned by two companies of the firſt United States regiment. What uſe this poſt is of, I never could learn.—It is a mere hoſpital in the ſummer ſeaſon, and the grave of brave men, who might be uſefully employed elſewhere. Fort Harmar is as remarkably healthful; ſo is the New-England ſettlement at Muſkingum; and I think the Miami ſettlement will be healthful when the people have the comforts of good living about them; at preſent they are the pooreſt among the poor emigrants to this country, and not the beſt managers. Below the falls, on the weſt ſide, is a miſerable ſettlement, called Clarkſville, frequently flooded, and compoſed of a people who cannot better themſelves at preſent, or I ſuppoſe they would not continue here. From thence I made an excurſion by land to Poſt Vincent, diſtant about one hundred miles: the fort here is garriſoned by two companies, at great expenſe, but little uſe. Not liking the country on account of the many hoſtile neighbouring Indians, I haſtened out of it, and went with a party of Frenchmen to Kaſkaſkias, in the Illinois country, and viſited Prairie des Rochers, St. Philip's, Belle Fontaine, and Kahokia; from whence making up a party to purſue ſome hoſtile Kukapoos, and ſteering due eaſt, we fell on the head waters of the Kaſkaſkia river, which we croſſed at ſome diſtance. This is a delightful country! On our return to Kahokia, I croſſed over to St. Louis, on the Spaniſh ſide, but I did not proceed far into the country; what I did ſee I did not like, and therefore bought a canoe and went down the Miſſiſſippi to St. Genevieve and the Saline. Not being pleaſed with theſe places, nor the country around, I embraced the company of ſome French hunters and traders going towards the St. Francis river, in a ſouth-weſt direction from St. Genevieve. After travelling thirty miles nearly, I came to a ſweet country; here meeting with ſome Shawaneſe Indians going to l'Ance la Graiſe, and New-Madrid, I made them a ſmall preſent, and engaged them to eſcort me there, which they did through a country fine and beautiful beyond deſcription; variegated by ſmall hills, beautiful timber, and extenſive plains of luxuriant ſoil. Here the Spaniards are building a handſome fort, to encourage the ſettlement by Americans, on a plan of Colonel Morgan's, of New-Jerſey, which, had it been purſued, as propoſed by him, would have made this the firſt in all the weſtern country; but they have deviated from it, ſo much as to diſcourage the ſettlement, and many have left it. The banks of the Miſſiſſippi overflow above and below the town, but the country back from the river is incomparably beautiful and fine. I made a

tour

ning of the year 1787 it contained about one thouſand one hundred houſes, ſeven-eights of which were conſumed by fire in the ſpace of five hours, on the 19th of March, 1788. It is now rebuilt. Its advantages for trade are very great. Situated on a noble river, in a fertile and healthy country, within a week's ſail of Mexico by ſea, and as near to the Britiſh, French, and Spaniſh Weſt-India iſlands, with a moral certainty of its becoming the general receptacle for the produce of that extenſive and valuable country, on the Miſſiſſippi and Ohio; theſe circumſtances are ſufficient to enſure its future growth and commercial importance.

The greater part of the white inhabitants are Roman Catholics; they are governed by a viceroy from Spain; the number of inhabitants is unknown.

tour back to the river St. Francis, diſtant about twenty-eight or thirty miles, and returned by another route more ſouthward, to my great ſatisfaction. Expreſſing to ſome of the people, at New-Madrid, my ſurpriſe at Colonel S***'s account of this country, I was told that he never went one hundred yards back from the river, either on the Ohio or Miſſiſſippi, except once, and that was at l'Ance la Graiſe, where a horſe was provided for him, and he rode fifteen or twenty miles, and returned ſo enraptured with the country, that he would not liſten to the propoſed ſettlement of New-Madrid being fixed at any other place; and he actually applied to Colonel Morgan for forty ſurveys, moſt of which were executed; and he entered into obligations for ſettlements thereon; but the Colonel refuſing to grant him three hundred acres of the town lots, for a farm, as it would be injurious to other applicants of equal merit, S*** ſwore he would do every thing in his power to injure Morgan and the ſettlement; which it ſeems he has endeavoured to do, to the ruin, however, of his own reputation. I am ſatisfied that the failure of this ſettlement is only owing to a narrow policy in the Spaniſh government, or to a deviation from their firſt plan, and not from the cauſes repreſented by its enemies. This is the country, of all others, I have ſeen, which I would wiſh to ſettle in, had Colonel Morgan's plan been adopted, or carried into execution; and thouſands among the beſt people of the weſtern country would already have been ſettled here. Why it was not, I know not; but I am told jealouſy of his ſucceſs was the cauſe.

"After continuing two months in this delightful country, I proceeded to the Natchez, which has already become a conſiderable ſettlement, and is now under the government of Don Gayoſo, a man greatly beloved; but the Spaniſh government, though I think it liberal at preſent, will not long agree with American ideas of liberty and juſtice; and a revolution is now in embryo, which a ſmall matter will blow to a flame; and New-Orleans itſelf will be at the mercy of new ſubjects, if joined by a handful of the Kentucky people.

MEXICO,

MEXICO, OR NEW-SPAIN.

MEXICO is ſituated between 9° and 40° north-latitude, and 18° and 50° weſt-longitude. Its length is two thouſand one hundred miles, and breadth one thouſand ſix hundred. It is bounded on the north, by unknown regions; on the eaſt, by Louiſiana and the gulph of Mexico; on the ſouth, by the iſthmus of Darien, which ſeparates it from Terra Firma in South-America; and on the weſt, by the Pacific ocean.

This vaſt country is divided into three grand diviſions, viz. 1. OLD-MEXICO. 2. NEW-MEXICO PROPER. 3. CALIFORINA, lying on the weſt, and a peninſula.

OLD-MEXICO.

The ancient kingdom of Mexico, properly ſo called, was divided into ſeveral provinces, of which the vale of Mexico itſelf was the fineſt in every reſpect. This vale is ſurrounded by verdant mountains, meaſuring upwards of one hundred and twenty miles in circumference at their baſe. A great part of it is occupied by two lakes, the upper one of freſh water, but the lower one brackiſh, communicating with the former by means of a canal. All the water running from the mountains is collected in this lower lake, on account of its being in the bottom of the valley; hence it was ready, when ſwelled by extraordinary rain, to overflow the city of Mexico. This delightful region contained the three imperial cities of Mexico, Acolhuacan, and Tlacopan; beſides forty others, with innumerable villages and hamlets; but the moſt conſiderable of theſe, according to Clavigero, now ſcarcely retain one twentieth part of their former magnificence. The principal inland provinces to the northward were the Otomies; to the ſouth-weſt the Malatzincas and Cuitlatecas; to the ſouth the Tlahuicas and Cohuixcas; to the ſouth-eaſt, after the ſtates of Itzocan, Jauhtepac, Quauhquecollon, Atlixco, Tehuacan, and others, were the great provinces of the Mixtecas, the Zapotecas, and the Chiapanecas; towards the eaſt were the provinces of Tepayacac, the Popolocas, and Totonacas. The maritime provinces on the Mexican

gulf were Quetzacualco and Cuetlachtlan, called by the Spaniards Coatzacualco. On the Pacific ocean were thoſe of Coliman, Zacatollan, Tototepec, Tecuantepec, and Zoconochco.

The province of the Otomies began in the northern part of the vale of Mexico, extending through the mountains to the north, to the diſtance of ninety miles from the city of Mexico; the principal cities being Tollan, or Tula, and Xilotepec: the latter made the capital of the country by the Spaniards. Beyond the ſettlements of the Otomies, the country for more than a thouſand miles in extent was inhabited only by barbarous and wandering ſavages.

The Malatzinca province contained the valley of Tolocan, and all the country from Taximaroa to the frontier of the kingdom of Michuacan. The valley of Tolocan is upwards of forty miles long from ſouth-eaſt to north-weſt, and thirty in breadth, where broadeſt. Its principal city, named alſo Tolocan, is ſituated at the foot of a high mountain covered with ſnow, thirty miles diſtant from Mexico.

The country of the Cuitlatecas extended from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, upwards of two hundred miles, extending as far as the Pacific ocean. Their capital was named Mexcaltepec, once a great and populous city, ſituated upon the ſea coaſt, but of which the ruins are now ſcarcely viſible. That of the Tlahuicas was named Quauhnahuac, and ſituated about forty miles to the ſouthward of Mexico. The province extended almoſt ſixty miles ſouthward, commencing from the ſouthern mountains of the vale of Mexico.

The country of the Cohuixcas extended on the ſouthward as far as the Pacific ocean, through that part where at preſent the port and city of Acapulco lie. It was divided into the ſtates of Tzompanco, Chilapan, Tlapan, and Tiſtla; the latter a very hot and unwholeſome country. To this province belonged a place named Tlachco, celebrated for its ſilver mines.

The province of the Mixtecas extended from Acatlan, a place diſtant about one hundred and twenty miles from Mexico, as far as the Pacific ocean towards the ſouth-eaſt. The inhabitants carried on a conſiderable commerce, and had ſeveral well-inhabited cities and villages. To the eaſt of the Mixtecas were the Zapotecas, ſo called from their capital Teotzapotlan. In their diſtrict was the valley of Huaxyacac, now Oaxaca, or Guaxaca.

The province of Mazatlan lay to the northward of the Mixtecas; and to the northward and eaſtward of the Zapotecas was Chimantla, having their capitals of the ſame name with their provinces. The

Chia-

Chiapanecas, Zoqui, and Queleni, were the laſt of the Mexican provinces towards the ſouth-eaſt. On the ſide of the mountain Popocatepec, and around it, lay ſeveral ſtates, of which the moſt conſiderable were Cholallan and Huexotzinco. Theſe two having, with the aſſiſtance of the Tlaſcalans, ſhaken off the Mexican yoke, re-eſtabliſhed their former ariſtocratical government. The Cholulans poſſeſſed a ſmall hamlet called Cuitlaxcoapan, in the place where the Spaniards afterwards founded the city of Angelopoli, which is the ſecond of New-Spain.

To the eaſtward of Cholula lay a conſiderable ſtate named Tepeyacac; and beyond that the Popolocas, whoſe principal cities were Tecamachalco and Quecholac. To the ſouthward of the Popolocas was the ſtate of Tahuacan, bordering upon the country of the Mixtecas; to the eaſt, the maritime province of Cuetlachtlan; and to the north, the Totonacas. The extent of this province was one hundred and fifty miles, beginning from the frontier of Zacatlan, a ſtate diſtant about eighty miles from the court, and terminating in the gulf of Mexico. Beſides the capital, named Mizquihuacan, this country had the beautiful city of Chempoallan, ſituated on the coaſt of the gulf, remarkable for being that by which the Spaniards entered the Mexican empire.

Coliman was the moſt northerly of the province on the Pacific ocean; the capital, named alſo Coliman, being in latitude 19, longitude 27° 2′. Towards the ſouth-eaſt was the province of Zacotlan, with its capital of the ſame name; then came the coaſt of the Cuitlatecas; after it that of the Cohuxicans, in which was the celebrated port of Acapulco. The Jopi bordered on the Cohuixca coaſt; and adjoining to that the Mixteca country, now called Xicayan; next to that was the large province of Tecuantepec; and laſtly, that of Xochonochco.

This province, the moſt ſoutherly of the Mexican empire, was bounded on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt by the country of Xochitepec, which did not belong to Mexico; on the weſt by Tecuantepec; and on the ſouth by the ocean. The capital, called alſo Xoconochco, was ſituated between two rivers, in 14 degrees of latitude, and 28° 3′ of longitude. On the Mexican gulf there were, beſides the country of Totonecas, the provinces of Cuetlachtlan and Coatzacualco; the latter bounded on the eaſt by the States of Tabaſco, and the peninſula of Yucatan. The province of Cuetlachtlan comprehended all the coaſt

between

between the river Alvarado and Antigua, where the province of the Totonecas began.

The climate of this vaſt country varies much according to the ſituation of its different parts. The maritime places are hot, unhealthy, and moiſt; the heat being ſo great as to cauſe people to ſweat even in the month of January. This heat is ſuppoſed to be owing to the flatneſs of the coaſts, and the accumulation of ſand upon them. The moiſture ariſes from the vaſt evaporation from the ſea, as well as from the great torrents of water deſcending from the mountains. The lands which lie in the neighbourhood of high mountains, the tops of which are always covered with ſnow, muſt of neceſſity be cold; and Clavigero informs us, that he has been on a mountain not more than twenty-five miles diſtant from the city of Mexico, where there was white froſt and ice even in the dog days. "All the other inland countries," ſays the ſame author, "where the greateſt population prevailed, enjoy a climate ſo mild and benign, that they neither feel the rigour of winter nor the heat of ſummer. It is true, in many of the countries, there is frequently white froſt in the three months of December, January, and February, and ſometimes even it ſnows; but the ſmall inconvenience which ſuch cold occaſions, continues only till the riſing ſun: no other fire than his rays is neceſſary to give warmth in winter; no other relief is wanted in the ſeaſon of heat but the ſhade: the ſame clothing which covers men in the dog-days, defends them in January, and the animals ſleep all the year under the open ſky.

"This mildneſs and agreeableneſs of climate under the torrid zone is the effect of ſeveral natural cauſes entirely unknown to the ancients, who did not believe it to be inhabited, and not well underſtood by ſome moderns, by whom it is believed unfavourable to thoſe who live in it. The purity of the atmoſphere, the ſmaller obliquity of the ſolar rays, and the longer ſtay of this luminary above the horizon in winter, in compariſon of other regions farther removed from the equator, concur to leſſen the cold, and to prevent all that horror which diſfigures the face of nature in other climes. During that ſeaſon a ſerene ſky and the natural delights of the country are enjoyed; whereas under the frigid, and even for the moſt part under the temperate zones, the clouds rob man of the proſpect of heaven, and the ſnow buries the beautiful productions of the earth. No leſs cauſes combine to temper the heat of ſummer. The plentiful ſhowers which frequently water the earth after mid-day, from April or May,

to September or October; the high mountains, continually loaded with ſnow, ſcattered here and there through the country of Anahuac; the cool winds which breathe from them in that ſeaſon; and the ſhorter ſtay of the ſun above the horizon, compared with the circumſtances of the temperate zone, transform the climes of thoſe happy countries into a cool and cheerful ſpring. But the agreeableneſs of the climate is counterbalanced by thunder ſtorms, which are frequent in ſummer, particularly in the neighbourhood of the mountain of Tlaſcala; and by earthquakes, which are at all times felt, though with leſs danger than terror. Storms of hail are neither more frequent nor more ſevere than in Europe."

One undoubted inconvenience which Mexico has, is that of volcanoes, of which Clavigero enumerates five. One named by the Spaniards Volcon d'Orizaba, is higher than the peak of Teneriffe, according to the account of the Jeſuit Tallandier, who meaſured them both. It began to ſend forth ſmoke in the year 1545, and continued burning for twenty years, but has not diſcovered any ſymptoms of eruption ſince that time. It is of a conical figure, and by reaſon of its great height, may be ſeen at fifty leagues diſtance. The top is always covered with ſnow, but the lower part with woods, of pine and other valuable timber. It is about ninety miles to the eaſtward of the capital.

Two other mountains, named Popocatepec and Iztaccihuatl, which lie near each other, at the diſtance of thirty-three miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Mexico, are likewiſe ſurpriſingly high. Clavigero ſuppoſes the former to be higher than the higheſt of the Alps, conſidering the elevated ground on which the baſe of it ſtands. It has a crater more than half a mile wide; from which, in the time of the Mexican kings, great quantities of ſmoke and flame iſſued. In the laſt century it frequently threw out great ſhowers of aſhes upon the adjacent places; but in this century hardly any ſmoke has been obſerved. This mountain is named by the Spaniards Volcan, and the other Sierra Nevada: the latter has alſo ſometimes emitted flames. Both of them have their tops always covered with ſnow in ſuch quantities, that the maſſes which fall down upon the neighbouring rocks ſupply the cities of Mexico, Gelopoli, Cholula, and all the adjacent country to the diſtance of forty miles, with that commodity, of which the conſumption is ſo great, that in 1746 the impoſt upon what was conſumed in the city of Mexico, amounted to fifteen thouſand two hundred and twelve Mexican crowns; ſome years after, it amounted

amounted to twenty thouſand, and is now in all probability a great deal more. Beſides theſe, there are the two mountains of Colunan and Tochtlan, both of which have occaſionally emitted flames. Clavigero does not include in the liſt of Mexican volcanoes, either thoſe of Nicaragua or Guatimala, becauſe theſe countries were not ſubject to the Mexican ſovereigns. Thoſe of Guatimala ſometimes break forth in a moſt furious manner, and in the year 1773 entirely deſtroyed that beautiful city. The Nicaraguan volcano, called Juruyo was only a ſmall hill before the year 1760. In that year, however, on the 29th of September, it began to burn with furious exploſions, ruining entirely the ſugar work, and the neighbouring village of Guacana: and from that time continued to emit fire and burning rocks in ſuch quantities, that the erupted matters in ſix years had formed themſelves into three high mountains, nearly ſix miles in circumference. During the time of the firſt eruption, the aſhes were carried as far as the city of Queretaro, one hundred and fifty miles diſtant from the volcano; and at Valladolid, diſtant ſixty miles from it, the ſhower was ſo abundant, that the people were obliged to ſweep the houſe yards two or three times a day.

Beſides theſe volcanoes, there are others in Mexico of a very remarkable height. The great chain of mountains called the Andes, are continued through the iſthmus of Panama, and through all Mexico, until they are loſt in the unknown mountains of the north. The moſt conſiderable of that chain is known in Mexico by the name of Sierra Madre, particularly in Cinalo and Tarahumara, provinces no leſs than one thouſand two hundred miles diſtant from the capital.

Mexico is well watered by very conſiderable rivers, though none of them are comparable to thoſe of South-America. Some of theſe run into the gulf of Mexico, and others into the Pacific ocean. The Alvarado has its principal ſource among the mountains of the Zapotecas, and diſcharges itſelf by three navigable mouths into the Mexican gulf, at the diſtance of thirty miles from Vera Cruz. The Coatzocualco riſes among the mountains of the Mixtecas, and empties itſelf into the gulf near the country of Onohualco. The river Chiapan, which likewiſe runs into this gulf, riſes among the mountains which ſeparate the diſtrict of Chiapan from that of Guatimala. The Spaniards call this river Tabaſco, by which name they alſo called that tract of land which unites Yucatan to the Mexican continent. It was

alſo called Grijalva, from the name of the commander of the Spaniſh fleet who diſcovered it.

The moſt celebrated of the rivers which run into the Pacific ocean, is that called by the Spaniards Guadalaxara, or Great river. It riſes in the mountains of Toloccan; and after running a courſe of more than ſix hundred miles, diſcharges itſelf into the ocean in 22° latitude.

There are likewiſe in this country ſeveral lakes of very conſiderable magnitude, but thoſe of Nicaragua, Chapallan, and Pazquaro, which are of the greateſt extent, did not belong to the ancient Mexican empire. The moſt remarkable were thoſe in the vale of Mexico, upon which the capital of the empire was founded. Of theſe, the freſh water one called the lake of Chalco, extended in length from eaſt to weſt twelve miles, as far as the city of Xochimilco; from thence, taking a northerly direction, it incorporated itſelf by means of a canal with the lake of Tezcuco; but its breadth did not exceed ſix miles. The other, named the lake of Tezcuco, extended fifteen, or rather ſeventeen miles from eaſt to weſt, and ſomething more from ſouth to north; but its extent is now much leſs, by reaſon of the Spaniards having diverted the courſe of many of the ſtreams which run into it. This lake is ſalt, which Clavigero ſuppoſes to ariſe from the nature of the ſoil which forms its bed.

Beſides theſe, there are a number of ſmaller lakes, ſome of which are very delightful. There is a vaſt variety of mineral waters, of the nitrous, ſulphureous, and aluminous kinds, ſome of them ſo hot, that meat might be boiled in them. At Tetuhuacan is a kind of petrifying water, as well as in ſeveral other parts of the empire. One of them forms a kind of ſmooth white ſtones, not diſpleaſing to the taſte; the ſcrapings of which taken in broth are celebrated as a diaphoretic, probably without any good reaſon. The doſe for a perſon not difficult to be ſweated is one dram of the ſcrapings. Many of the rivers of Mexico afford ſurpriſing and beautiful caſcades, particularly the great river Guadalaxara, at a place called Tempizque, fifteen miles to the ſouthward of that city. Along a deep river called Atoyaque, is a natural bridge, conſiſting of a vaſt mound of earth, along which carriages paſs conveniently. Clavigero ſuppoſes it to have been the fragment of a mountain thrown down by an earthquake, and then penetrated by the river.

The mineral productions of Mexico are very valuable; the natives found gold in ſeveral provinces of the empire; they gathered it prin-

principally from among the ſands of their rivers in grains, and the people in whoſe country it was found, were obliged to pay a certain quantity by way of tribute to the emperor. They dug ſilver out of the mines in Tlochco, and ſome other countries; but it was leſs prized by them than by other nations. Since the conqueſt, however, ſo many ſilver mines have been diſcovered in that country, eſpecially in the provinces to the north-weſt of the capital, that it is in vain to attempt any enumeration of them. They had two ſorts of copper; one hard, which ſerved them inſtead of iron, to make axes and other inſtruments for war and agriculture; the other kind, which was ſoft and flexible, ſerved for domeſtic utenſils as with us. They had alſo tin from the mines of Tlachco, and dug lead out of mines in the country of the Otomies, but we are not informed what uſes they put this laſt metal to. They had likewiſe mines of iron in Tlaſcala, Tlachco, and ſome other places; but theſe were either unknown to the Mexicans, or they did not know how to benefit themſelves by them. In Chilapan were mines of quickſilver; and in many places they had ſulphur, alum, vitriol, cinnabar, ochre, and an earth greatly reſembling white lead. Theſe minerals were employed in painting and dyeing, but we know not to what uſe they put their quickſilver. There was great abundance of amber and aſphaltum upon their coaſts, both of which were paid in tribute to the king of Mexico from many parts of the empire: the former was wont to be ſet in gold by way of ornament, and aſphaltum was employed in their ſacrifices.

Mexico produces ſome diamonds, though but few in number; but they had in greater plenty ſome other precious ſtones, ſuch as amethyſts, cats eyes, turquoiſes, cornelians, and ſome green ſtones reſembling emeralds, and very little inferior to them, of all which a tribute was paid to the emperor by the people in whoſe territories they were found. They were likewiſe furniſhed with chryſtal in plenty from the mountains which lay on the coaſt of the Mexican gulph, between the port of Vera Cruz and the river Coatzacualco. In the mountains of Celpolalpan, to the eaſtward of Mexico, were quarries of jaſper and marble of different colours: they had likewiſe alabaſter at a place called Tecalco, now Tecale, in the neighbourhood of the province of Tapeyacac, and many other parts of the empire. The ſtone tetzontli is generally of a dark red colour, pretty hard, porous, and light, and unites moſt firmly with lime and ſand, on which account it is of great requeſt for buildings in the capital,

where

where the foundation is bad. There are entire mountains of loadſtone, a very conſiderable one of which lies between Teoitztlan and Chilapan, in the country of the Cohuixcas. They formed curious figures of nephritic ſtone, ſome of which are ſtill preſerved in European muſeums. They had a kind of fine white talc, which burnt into an excellent plaſter, and with which they uſed to whiten their paintings. But the moſt uſeful ſtone they had, was that called itztli, of which there is great abundance in many parts of Mexico: it has a gloſſy appearance, is generally of a black colour, and ſemi-tranſparent; though ſometimes alſo of a blue or white colour. In South-America this ſtone is called pietra del galinazzo; and Count Caylus endeavours to ſhow, in a manuſcript diſſertation quoted by Bomare, that the obſidiona, of which the ancients made their vaſes murini, were entirely ſimilar to this ſtone. The Mexicans made of it looking-glaſſes, knives, lancets, razors, and ſpears. Sacred vaſes were made of it after the introduction of Chriſtianity.

The ſoil of Mexico, though various, produced every where the neceſſaries, and even the luxuries of life. "The celebrated Dr. Hernandez, the Pliny of New-Spain," ſays Clavigero, "has deſcribed in his Natural Hiſtory about one thouſand two hundred plants, natives of the country; but his deſcription, though large, being confined to medicinal plants, has only compriſed one part of what provident nature has produced there for the benefit of mortals. With regard to the other claſſes of vegetables, ſome are eſteemed for their flowers, ſome for their fruit, ſome for their leaves, ſome for their root, ſome for their trunk or their wood, and others for their gum, reſin, oil, or juice."

Mexico abounds with a great variety of flowers, many of which are peculiar to the country, while multitudes of others imported from Europe and Aſia rival in luxuriance the natives of the country itſelf. The fruits are partly natives of the Canary iſlands, partly of Spain, beſides thoſe which grow naturally in the country. The exotics are water melons, apples, pears, peaches, quinces, apricots, pomegranates, figs, black cherries, walnuts, almonds, olives, cheſnuts, and grapes; though theſe laſt are likewiſe natives. There are two kinds of wild vine found in the country of the Mixtecas, the one reſembling the common vine in the ſhoots and figure of its leaves; it produces large red grapes covered with an hard ſkin, but of ſweet and grateful taſte, which would undoubtedly improve greatly by culture. The grape of the other kind is hard, large, and of a very

harſh

harſh taſte, but they make an excellent conſerve of it. Clavigero is of opinion that the cocoa tree, plantain, citron, orange, and lemon, came from the Philippine iſlands and Canaries; but it is certain that theſe, as well as other trees, thrive in this country as well as in their native ſoil. All the maritime countries abound with cocoa nut trees; they have ſeven kinds of oranges, and four of lemons, and there are likewiſe four kinds of plantains; the largeſt, called the zapalat, is from fifteen to twenty inches long, and about three in diameter; it is hard, little eſteemed, and only eat when roaſted or boiled. The *platano largo*, or "long plantain," is about eight inches long, and one and a half in diameter; the ſkin is at firſt green, and blackiſh when perfectly ripe. The guinco is a ſmaller fruit, but richer, ſofter, and more delicious, though not ſo wholeſome. A ſpecies of plantain, called the dominico, is ſmaller and more delicate than the others. There are whole woods of plantain trees, oranges, and lemons; and the people of Michuacan carry on a conſiderable commerce with the dried plantains, which are preferable either to raiſins or figs. Clavigero enumerates twenty-eight different ſorts of fruit, natives of Mexico, beſides many others, the names of which are not mentioned. Hernandez mentions four kinds of cocoa nuts, of which the ſmalleſt of the whole was in the moſt uſe for chocolate and other drinks daily made uſe of; the other kinds ſerved rather for money in commerce than for aliment. The cocoa was one of the plants moſt cultivated in the warm countries of the empire, and many provinces paid it in tribute to the emperor, particularly that of Xoconochco, the cocoa nut of which is preferable to the others. Cotton was one of the moſt valuable productions of the country, as it ſerved inſtead of flax, though this laſt alſo was produced in the country: it is of two kinds, white and tawny-coloured. They made uſe of rocou, or Braſil-wood in their dying, as the Europeans alſo do: they made cordage of the bark, and the wood was made uſe of to produce fire by friction.

The principal grain of Mexico, before the introduction of thoſe from Europe, was maize, in the Mexican language called tluolli, of which there were ſeveral kinds, differing in ſize, weight, colour, and taſte. This kind of grain was brought from America to Spain, and from Spain to other countries of Europe. The French bean was the principal kind of pulſe in uſe among them, of which there were more ſpecies than of the maize; the largeſt was called ayacotli, of the ſize of a common bean, with a beautiful red flower; but

but the moſt eſteemed was the ſmall, black, heavy French bean. This kind of pulſe, which is not good in Italy, is in Mexico ſo excellent, that it not only ſerves for ſuſtenance to the poorer claſs of people, but is eſteemed a luxury even by the Spaniſh nobility.

Of the eſculent roots of Mexico, the following were the moſt remarkable: 1. The xicama, called by the Mexicans catzotl, was of the figure and ſize of an onion, ſolid, freſh, juicy, and of a white colour; it was always eat raw. 2. The camote, is another, very common in the country, of which there are three ſorts, white, yellow, and purple: they eat beſt when boiled. 3. The cacomite, is the root of a plant which has a beautiful flower called the tyger flower, with three red pointed petals, the middle part mixed with white and yellow, ſomewhat reſembling the ſpots of the creature whence it takes its name. 4. The huacamote, is the root of a kind of Caſſava plant, and is likewiſe boiled. 5. The papa, a root tranſplanted into Europe, and greatly valued in Ireland, was brought from South-America into Mexico. Beſides all which they have a number of kitchen vegetables imported from the Canaries, Spain, and other countries of Europe. The American aloe is very ſimilar to the real one, and is a plant of which the Mexicans formerly, and the Spaniards ſtill, make great uſe.

They have a variety of palm trees. From the fibres of the leaves of one ſpecies they make thread: the bark of another kind, to the depth of three fingers, is a maſs of membranes, of which the poor people make mats: the leaves of another kind are uſed for ornaments in their feſtivals: they are round, groſs, white, and ſhining, having the appearance of ſhells heaped upon one another. A fourth kind bears nuts called cocoas, or nuts of oil. Theſe nuts are of the ſize of a nutmeg, having in the inſide a white, oily, eatable kernel, covered by a thin purple pellicle. The oil has a ſweet ſcent, but is eaſily condenſed, when it becomes a ſoft maſs, as white as ſnow.

Of timber trees there are great variety, of a quality not inferior to any in the world; and as there are a variety of climates in the country, every one produces a kind of wood peculiar to itſelf. There are whole woods of cedars and ebonies, vaſt quantities of agallochum, or wood of aloes; beſides others valuable on account of their weight, durability and hardneſs, or for their being eaſily cut, pliable, of a fine colour, or an agreeable flavour. There are alſo in Mexico innumerable trees remarkable for their ſize. Acoſta mentions a cedar,

the trunk of which was ſixteen fathoms in circumference; and Clavigero mentions one of the length of one hundred and ſeven Paris feet. In the city of Mexico he mentions very large tables of cedar made out of ſingle planks. In the valley of Atlixco is a very ancient fir tree, hollowed by lightning, the cavity of which could conveniently hold fourteen horſemen; nay, we are informed by the archbiſhop of Toledo, that in 1770 he went to view it along with the archbiſhop of Guatimala, at which time he cauſed an hundred young lads to enter its cavity. Our author mentions ſome other trees, of the ſpecies called ceiba, which for magnitude may be compared with this celebrated fir: "The largeneſs of theſe trees," ſays he, "is proportioned to their prodigious elevation, and they afford a moſt delightful proſpect at the time they are adorned with new leaves and loaded with fruit, in which there is incloſed a particular ſpecies of fine, white, and moſt delicate cotton: this might be, and actually has been, made into webs as ſoft, delicate, and perhaps more ſo than ſilk; but it is toilſome to ſpin, on account of the ſmallneſs of the threads, and the profit does not requite the labour, the web not being laſting. Some uſe it for pillows and mattreſſes, which have the ſingular property of expanding enormouſly when expoſed to the heat of the ſun. De Bomare ſays, that the Africans make of the thread of the ceiba that vegetable taffety which is ſo ſcarce, and ſo much eſteemed in Europe. The ſcarcity of ſuch cloth is not to be wondered at, conſidering the difficulty of making it. The ceiba, according to this author, is higher than all other trees yet known."

Clavigero mentions a Mexican tree, the wood of which is very valuable, but poiſonous, and if incautiouſly handled when freſh cut, produces a ſwelling in the ſcrotum. He has forgot the name given to it by the Mexicans, nor has he ever ſeen the tree itſelf, nor been witneſs to the effect.

This country abounds alſo with aromatic and medicinal trees, producing gums, reſins, &c. From one of theſe a balſam is produced, not in the leaſt inferior to the celebrated balſam of Mecca; it is of a reddiſh black or yellowiſh white, of a ſharp, bitter taſte, and of a ſtrong but moſt grateful odour; it is common in the provinces of Panuco and Chiapan, and other warm countries: the kings of Mexico cauſed it to be tranſplanted into their celebrated garden of Huaxtepec, where it flouriſhed, and was afterwards multiplied in all the neighbouring mountains. The Indians, in order to procure

a greater quantity of this balſam, burn the branches, which afford more than mere diſtillation, though undoubtedly of an inferior quality; nor do they regard the loſs of the trees, which are very abundant: the ancient Mexicans were wont to extract it alſo by decoction. The firſt parcel of this balſam brought from Mexico to Rome was ſold at one hundred ducats per ounce, and was, by the apoſtolic ſee, declared to be matter fit for chriſm, though different from that of Mecca, as Acoſta and all other writers on this ſubject obſerve. An oil is likewiſe drawn from the fruit of this tree ſimilar in taſte and ſmell to that of the bitter almond, but more acrimonious. From two other trees, named the huaconex and maripenda, an oil was extracted equivalent to the balſam: the former is a tree of a moderate height, the wood of which is aromatic, and ſo hard, that it will keep freſh for ſeveral years, though buried under the earth: the leaves are ſmall and yellow, the flowers likewiſe ſmall and white, and the fruit ſimilar to that of the laurel. The oil was diſtilled from the bark of the tree, after breaking it, and keeping it three days in ſpring water, and then drying it in the ſun: the leaves likewiſe afforded an agreeable oil by diſtillation. The maripenda is a ſhrub with lanceolated leaves, the fruit of a red colour when ripe, and reſembling the grape. The oil is extracted by boiling the branches with a mixture of ſome of the fruit.

The trees producing liquid amber, the liquid ſtorax of the Mexicans, is of a large ſize, the leaves ſimilar to thoſe of the maple, indented, white in one part and dark in the other, diſpoſed of in threes; the fruit is thorny and round, but polygonous, with the the ſurface and the angles yellow; the bark of the tree partly green and partly tawny. By inciſions in the trunk they extract that valuable ſubſtance named liquid amber, and the oil of the ſame name, which is ſtill more valuable. Liquid amber is likewiſe obtained from a decoction of the branches, but it is inferior to that obtained from the trunk.

The name copalli in Mexico is generic, and common to all the reſins, but eſpecially ſignifies thoſe made uſe of for incenſe. There are ten ſpecies of theſe trees yielding reſins of this kind, the principal of which is that from which the copal is got, ſo well known in medicine and varniſhes. A great quantity of this was made uſe of by the ancient Mexicans, and is ſtill uſed for ſimilar purpoſes by the Spaniards. The tecopalli, or tepecopalli, is a reſin ſimilar to the incenſe of Arabia, which diſtils from a tree of moderate ſize

that

that grows in the mountains, having a fruit like an acorn, and containing the nut inveloped in a mucilage, within which there is a ſmall kernel uſeful in medicine.

The mizquitl, or mezquite, is a ſpecies of true acacia, and the gum diſtilling from it is ſaid to be the true gum arabic: it is a thorny ſhrub, with branches irregularly diſpoſed, the leaves ſmall, thin, and pinnated; the flowers being like thoſe of the birch tree: the fruits are ſweet and eatable, containing a ſeed, of which the barbarous Chichemecas were wont to make a kind of paſte that ſerved them for bread. The wood is exceedingly hard and heavy, and the trees are as common in Mexico as oaks are in Europe, particularly on hills in the temperate countries.

Of the elaſtic gum, which is found in plenty in Mexico, the natives were in uſe to make foot-balls, which, though heavy, have a better ſpring than thoſe filled with air. At preſent they varniſh with it their hats, cloaks, boots and great coats, in a manner ſimilar to what is done in Europe with wax, and by which means they are rendered all water proof.

Clavigero laments, that the natural hiſtory of vegetables in Mexico is very little known, and that of animals no better. The firſt Spaniards, ſays he, who gave them names, were more ſkilful in the art of war than in the ſtudy of nature. Inſtead of retaining the terms which would have been moſt proper, they denominated many animals tygers, wolves, bears, dogs, ſquirrels, &c. although they were very different in kind, merely from ſome reſemblance in the colour of their ſkin, their figure, or ſome ſimilarity in habits and diſpoſition. The quadrupeds found in Mexico at the arrival of the Spaniards, were lions, tygers, wild cats, bears, wolves, foxes, the common ſtags, white ſtags, bucks, wild goats, badgers, pole-cats, weaſels, martins, ſquirrels, polatucas, rabbits, hares, otters and rats. All theſe animals are ſuppoſed to be common to both continents. The white ſtag, whether it be the ſame ſpecies of the other or not, is undoubtedly common to both, and was known to the Greeks and Romans. The Mexicans call it "the king of the ſtags." M. Buffon imagines the white colour of this creature to be the effect of captivity; but Clavigero ſays, that it is found wild, and of the ſame white colour, on the mountains of New-Spain. In many other points, he alſo controverts the opinions of this celebrated naturaliſt, who will not allow the lion, tyger or rabbit, to be natives of America.

The animals which are common to Mexico, with the other parts of the continent, are, the Mexican hog, the moufete, the opoſſum, the armadillo, the techichi, a ſmall animal reſembling a dog, which being perfectly dumb, gave occaſion to a report, that the Mexican dogs could not bark. The fleſh of this animal was eat by them, and was eſteemed agreeable and nouriſhing food. After the conqueſt of Mexico, the Spaniards having neither large cattle nor ſheep, provided their markets with this quadruped, by which means the ſpecies ſoon came to be extinct, though it had been very numerous. The land-ſquirrel is very numerous in the kingdom of Michuacan, has great elegance of form, and is extremely graceful in its movement; but it cannot be tamed, and bites moſt furiouſly every perſon who approaches it.

Beſides theſe, there are ſea-lions, raccoons, and that voracious animal named the tapir. There are likewiſe great numbers of monkeys of many different kinds, ſome of which have heads reſembling thoſe of dogs; ſome of them are ſtrong and fierce, equalling a man in ſtature when they ſtand upright.

Among the animals peculiar to Mexico, is one named by Clavigero coyoto, which appears to have been inaccurately deſcribed by natural hiſtorians, ſome making it one ſpecies and ſome another. The tlalcojotl, or tlalcoyoto, is about the ſize of a middling dog, and in Clavigero's opinion, is the largeſt animal that lives under the earth. The tepeizuintli, or mountain-dog, though it is but of the ſize of a ſmall dog, is ſo bold that it attacks deer, and ſometimes kills them. Another animal, larger than the two foregoing, is called the xoloitzcuintli; ſome of theſe are no leſs than four feet in length; it has a face like the dog, but tuſks like the wolf, with erect ears, the neck groſs, and the tail long: it is entirely deſtitute of hair, except only the ſnout, where there are ſome thick crooked briſtles: the whole body is covered with a ſmooth, ſoft, aſh-coloured ſkin, ſpotted partly with black and tawny. This ſpecies of animals, as well as the two former, are almoſt totally extinct. A Lyncean academician, named Giovanni Fabri, has endeavoured to prove, that the xoloitzcuintli is the ſame with the wolf of Mexico; but this is denied by Clavigero.

An animal called ocotochtli, a kind of wild cat, is remarkable more for the fabulous account of it, than for any ſingular property with which it is really endowed. According to Dr. Hernandez, when this creature takes any prey, it covers it with leaves, and afterwards

terwards mounting on ſome neighbouring tree, it begins howling to invite other animals to eat its prey, being itſelf always the laſt to eat, becauſe the poiſon of its tongue is ſo ſtrong, that if it ate firſt the prey would be infected, and other animals which eat of it would die. To theſe muſt be added a curious animal of the mole kind, which is called tozan, or tuza; it is about the ſize of an European mole, but very different otherwiſe.*

The birds are ſo numerous, and of ſuch various appearances and qualities, that Mexico has been called the country of birds as Africa is of quadrupeds. Though Hernandez paſſes over a great number of ſpecies, he yet deſcribes above two hundred peculiar to the country. He allows to the eagles and hawks of Mexico a ſuperiority over thoſe of Europe; and the falcons of this country were formerly eſteemed ſo excellent, that, by the deſire of Philip II. an hundred of them were ſent every year over to Spain. The largeſt, the moſt beautiful, and the moſt valuable kind of eagles is called by the Mexicans itzquauhtli, and will purſue not only the larger kind of birds, but quadrupeds, and even men.

The aquatic birds are very numerous and of great variety: there are at leaſt twenty ſpecies of ducks, a vaſt number of geeſe, with ſeveral kinds of herons, great number of ſwans, quails, water-rails, divers, king's fiſhers, pelicans, &c. The multitude of ducks is ſometimes ſo great, that they cover the fields, and appear at a diſtance like flocks of ſheep. Some of the herons and egrets are perfectly white, ſome aſh-coloured: others have the plumage of the body white, while the neck, with the tops and upper part of the wings, and part of the tail, are enlivened with a bright ſcarlet, or beautiful blue.

There are a great number of birds valuable on account of their plumage, which was made uſe of by the Mexicans in their excellent Moſaic works, an art which ſeems now to be totally loſt. Peacocks have been carried from the old continent to Mexico: but not being attended to, have propagated very ſlowly. The birds remarkable for their ſong are likewiſe very numerous; among which that called the centzonitl, by Europeans the mocking-bird, is the moſt remarkable, on account of its counterfeiting naturally the notes of all others it hears.

* For a more particular account of theſe animals ſee Hiſtory of Quadrupeds annexed.

Mexico, like all other American countries, abounds with reptiles, many of them of an enormous ſize. The crocodiles are not leſs to be dreaded than thoſe of Africa or Aſia; and there are likewiſe ſome of thoſe monſtrous ſerpents met with in the Eaſt-Indies and in South-America, though happily the ſpecies of thoſe terrible creatures ſeems to be nearly extinct, as they are ſeldom to be found but in ſome ſolitary wood, or other remote place. There are great numbers of lizards, ſome of which the people ſuppoſe to be poiſonous; but others think this opinion ill-founded. There are ſeveral kinds of poiſonous ſerpents, of which the rattle-ſnake is one. The cenocoatl is another poiſonous ſerpent, and remarkable for having a luminous appearance in the dark; by which, as by the rattle in the tail of the former, travellers are warned to avoid it. Among the harmleſs ſnakes is a very beautiful one about a foot in length, and of the thickneſs of the little finger; it appears to take great pleaſure in the ſociety of ants, inſomuch that it will accompany theſe inſects upon their expeditions, and return with them to their uſual neſt: it is called both by the Mexicans and Spaniards the "mother of the ants;" but Clavigero ſuppoſes, that all the attachment which the ſnake ſhews to the ant-hills proceeds from its living on the ants themſelves. The ancient Mexicans were wont to take delight in keeping an harmleſs green ſnake, which they catched in the fields, and which, when well fed, would grow to the length of five or ſix feet. It was generally kept in a tub, which it never left but to receive food from the hand of its maſter; and this it would take either mounted on his ſhoulder or coiled about his legs.

The aquatic animals are innumerable. Clavigero mentions a ſpecies of frogs ſo large that a ſingle one will weigh a pound, and which are excellent food. Of fiſh proper for food, he ſays, that he has counted upwards of one hundred ſpecies, without taking in the turtle, crab, lobſter, or any other cruſtaceous animal.

Of flying and other minute inſects the number is prodigiouſly great. There are a variety of beetles; ſome of a green colour make a great noiſe in flying, on which account children are fond of them. There are great numbers of ſhining beetles, which make a delightful appearance at night, as well as the luminous flies which abound in the country. There are ſix kinds of bees and four kinds of waſps; of which laſt, one collects wax and honey of a very ſweet taſte: another is called the wandering waſp, from its frequent change of abode; and in conſequence of theſe changes, it is conſtantly employed

ployed in collecting materials for its habitations. There is alſo a black hornet with a red tail, the ſting of which is ſo large and ſtrong, that it will not only penetrate a ſugar-cane, but even the trunk of a tree. The lake of Mexico abounds with a kind of fly, the eggs of which are depoſited upon the flags and ruſhes in ſuch quantities as to form large maſſes: theſe are collected by the fiſhermen, and carried to market for ſale: they are eaten by both Mexicans and Spaniards, and have much the ſame taſte as the caviare of fiſh: the Mexicans eat alſo the flies themſelves, ground and made up with ſalt-petre. There are abundance of gnats in the moiſt places and lakes, but the capital, though ſituated upon a lake, is entirely free from them. There are other flies which make no noiſe in their flight, but cauſe a violent itching by their bite, and if the part be ſcratched, an open wound is apt to enſue. The butterflies are in vaſt numbers, and their wings glow with colours far ſuperior to thoſe of Europe; the figures of ſome of them are given by Hernandez. But notwithſtanding its beauties and advantages, Mexico is ſubject to the dreadful devaſtations of locuſts, which ſometimes occaſion the moſt deſtructive famines.

There are ſome of the worms of Mexico made uſe of by the inhabitants as food, others are poiſonous. There are great numbers of ſcolopendræ and ſcorpions, ſome of the former growing to an immenſe ſize. Hernandez ſays, that he has ſeen ſome of them two feet long and two inches thick. The ſcorpions are very numerous, and in the hot parts of the country their poiſon is ſo ſtrong as to kill children, and give terrible pain to adults. Their ſting is moſt dangerous during thoſe hours of the day in which the ſun is hotteſt. In the province of Michuacan is a ſingular ſpecies of ant, larger than the common one, with a greyiſh body and black head; on its hinder part is a little bag full of a ſweet ſubſtance, of which children are very fond: the Mexicans ſuppoſe this to be a kind of honey collected by the inſect; but Clavigero thinks it rather is its eggs. There is a miſchievous kind of tick, which in the hot countries abounds among the graſs: from thence it eaſily gets upon the clothes, and from them upon the ſkin; there it fixes with ſuch force, from the particular figure of its feet, that it can ſcarcely be got off: at firſt it ſeems nothing but a ſmall black ſpeck, but in a ſhort time enlarges to ſuch a degree, from the blood which it ſucks, that it equals the ſize of a bean, and then aſſumes a leaden colour. Oviedo ſays, that the beſt and ſafeſt method of getting ſpeedily rid of it is by anointing

anointing the part with oil, and then ſcraping it with a knife. If it is not ſpeedily removed, a wound is made ſimilar to that which the nigera or chegoe makes. The following inſects were eaten by the ancient Mexicans: 1. The atelepitz, a marſh beetle, reſembling in ſhape and ſize the flying beetles, having four feet, and covered with a hard ſhell. 2. The atopinan, a marſh graſshopper of a dark colour and great ſize, being not leſs than ſix inches long and two broad. 3. The ahuihuitla, a worm which inhabits the Mexican lake, four inches long, and of the thickneſs of a gooſe quill, of a tawny colour on the upper part of the body, and white upon the under part; it ſtings with its tail, which is hard and poiſonous. 4. The ocuiliztac, a black marſh-worm, which becomes white on being roaſted.

Among the curious productions of the animal kind to be met with in this country, Clavigero mentions a kind of zoophytes, which he ſaw in the year 1751, in a houſe in the country, about ten miles from Angelopoli, towards the ſouth-eaſt: they were three or four inches long, and had four very ſlender feet, with two antennæ; but their body was nothing more than the fibres of the leaves, of the ſame ſhape, ſize and colour, with thoſe of the other leaves of the trees upon which theſe creatures were found. Gemelli deſcribes another kind of theſe zoophytes which are found in Manilla.

Mexico produces alſo ſilk-worms; and the manufacture of ſilk might be carried on to great advantage, were it not prohibited for ſome political reaſons. Beſides the common ſilk, there is another found in the woods, very white, ſoft and ſtrong. It grows on the trees in ſeveral maritime places, particularly in dry ſeaſons: unleſs by poor people, however, this ſilk is not turned to any uſe, partly from inattention to their intereſts, but "chiefly" ſays Clavigero, "to the obſtructions which would be thrown in the way of any one who ſhould attempt a trade of that kind. We know from Cortes's letters to Charles V. that ſilk uſed to be ſold in the Mexican markets: and ſome pictures are ſtill preſerved, done by the ancient Mexicans upon a paper made of ſilk."

Cochineal is one of the moſt valuable products of Mexico, and great care is taken to rear the inſect in different parts; but the beſt is that which comes from the province of Mizteca: ſome have reckoned, that more than two thouſand five hundred bags of cochineal are ſent every year from Mizteca to Spain; and the trade in

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that article carried on by the city of Oaxaca is computed at two hundred thouſand crowns value.

Though Mexico was originally inhabited by a number of different nations, yet all of them reſembled each other pretty much, not only in character, but in external appearance. "They generally rather exceed," ſays Clavigero, "than fall under the middle ſize, and are well-proportioned in all their limbs: they have good complexions, narrow foreheads, black eyes, clean, firm, white and regular teeth; thick, black, coarſe, gloſſy hair; thin beards, and generally no hair upon their legs, thighs and arms, their ſkin being of an olive colour. There is ſcarcely a nation on earth in which there are fewer perſons deformed: and it would be more difficult to find a ſingle hump-backed, lame or ſquint-eyed man among a thouſand Mexicans, than among an hundred of any other nation. The unpleaſantneſs of their colour, the ſmallneſs of their foreheads, the thinneſs of their beards, and the coarſeneſs of their hair, are ſo far compenſated by the regularity and fine proportion of their limbs, that they can neither be called very beautiful nor the contrary, but ſeem to hold a middle place between the extremes: their appearance neither engages nor diſguſts; but among the young women of Mexico there are many very beautiful and fair, whoſe beauty is at the ſame time rendered more winning by the natural ſweetneſs of their manner of ſpeaking, and by the pleaſantneſs and natural modeſty of their whole behaviour. Their ſenſes are very acute, eſpecially that of ſight, which they enjoy unimpaired to the lateſt age. Their conſtitutions are ſound and their health robuſt: they are entirely free of many diſorders which are common among the Spaniards; but of the epidemical diſeaſes to which their country is occaſionally ſubject they are generally the victims: with them theſe diſeaſes begin, and with them they end. One never perceives in a Mexican that ſtinking breath which is occaſioned in other people by the corruption of the humours or indigeſtion: their conſtitutions are phlegmatic; but the pituitous evacuations from their heads are very ſcanty, and they ſeldom ſpit. They become grey-headed and bald earlier than the Spaniards; and although moſt of them die of acute diſeaſes, it is not very uncommon among them to attain the age of an hundred. They are now, and ever have been, moderate in eating, but their paſſion for ſtrong liquors is carried to the greateſt exceſs: formerly they were kept within bounds by the ſeverity of the laws, but now that theſe liquors are become ſo common, and drunkenneſs is un-

puniſhed, one-half of the people ſeem to have loſt their ſenſes; and this, together with the poor manner in which they live, expoſed to all the baneful impreſſions of diſeaſe, and deſtitute of the means of correcting them, is undoubtedly the principal cauſe of the havoc which is made among them by epidemical diſorders.

"Many perſons allow the Mexicans to poſſeſs a great talent of imitation, but deny them that of invention; a vulgar error, which is contradicted by the ancient hiſtory of that people. Their minds are affected by the ſame variety of paſſions with thoſe of other nations, but not to an equal degree: the Mexicans ſeldom exhibit thoſe tranſports of anger, or frenzies of love, which are ſo common in other countries. They are ſlow in their motions, and ſhew a wonderful tenacity and ſteadineſs in thoſe works which require time and long-continued attention. They are moſt patient of injury and hardſhip, and where they ſuſpect no evil intention, are moſt grateful for any kindneſs ſhewn: but ſome Spaniards, who cannot diſtinguiſh patience from inſenſibility, nor diſtruſt from ingratitude, ſay proverbially, that the Indians are alike inſenſible to injuries or benefits. That habitual diſtruſt which they entertain of all who are not of their nation, prompts them often to lye and betray; ſo that good faith certainly has not been reſpected among them ſo much as it deſerves. They are by nature taciturn, ſerious and auſtere, and ſhew more anxiety to puniſh crimes than to reward virtue.

"Generoſity and perfect diſintereſtedneſs are the principal features of their character. Gold, with the Mexicans, has not that value which it enjoys elſewhere. They ſeem to give without reluctance what has coſt them the utmoſt labour to acquire. The neglect of ſelfiſh intereſts, with the diſlike which they bear to their rulers, and conſequently their averſion to perform the taſks impoſed by them, ſeem to have been the only grounds of that much exaggerated indolence with which the Americans have been charged; and, after all, there is no ſet of people in that country who labour more, or whoſe labour is more neceſſary. The reſpect paid by the young people to the old, and by children to their parents, ſeem to be feelings that are born with them. Parents are very fond of their children; but the affection which huſbands bear to their wives is certainly leſs than that which wives bear to their huſbands; and it is very common for the men to love their neighbour's wives better than their own.

"Courage and cowardice ſeem alternately ſo to affect their minds, that it is often difficult to determine whether the one or the other predominates: they meet dangers with intrepidity when they proceed from natural cauſes, but are eaſily terrified by the ſtern look of a Spaniard. That ſtupid indifference about death and eternity, which many authors have thought inherent in the character of every American, is peculiar only to thoſe who are yet ſo rude and uninformed as to have no idea of a future ſtate."

Thus much with reſpect to the general character of the Mexicans; but Clavigero obſerves, that "the modern Mexicans are not in all reſpects ſimilar to the ancient, as the Greeks of theſe days have little reſemblance to thoſe who lived in the times of Plato and Pericles. The ancient Mexicans ſhewed more fire, and were more ſenſible to the impreſſions of honour; they were more intrepid, more nimble, more active, more induſtrious; but they were at the ſame time more ſuperſtitious and cruel."

The principal inhabitants of Mexico, in modern times, are Spaniards ſent thither by the court, to fill the poſts of government. They are obliged, like thoſe in the mother country who aſpire to any eccleſiaſtical, civil or military employments, to prove, that there have been neither heretics, Jews, Mahommedans, nor any perſon in their family who have been called before the inquiſition for four generations. Merchants who are deſirous of going to Mexico, as well as to other parts of America, without becoming coloniſts, are compelled to obſerve the ſame forms: they are alſo obliged to ſwear that they have three hundred palms of merchandiſe, their own property, in the fleet in which they embark, and that they will not carry their wives with them. On theſe abſurd conditions they become the principal agents of the European commerce with the Indies. Though their charter is only to continue three years, and a little longer for countries more remote, it is of great importance. To them alone belongs the right of ſelling, as commiſſioners, the major part of the cargo. If theſe laws were obſerved, the merchants ſtationed in the new world would be confined to diſpoſe of what they have received on their own account.

The predilection which the adminiſtration has for Spaniards born in Europe, has reduced the Spaniſh Creoles to acquieſce in ſubordinate ſtations. The deſcendants of the companions of Cortes, and of thoſe who came after them, being conſtantly excluded from all places of honour or of truſt that were any way conſiderable, have ſeen

the gradual decay of the power that ſupported their fathers. The habit of being obliged to bear that unjuſt contempt with which they have been treated, has at laſt made them become really contemptible. They have totally loſt, in the vices which originate from indolence, from the heat of the climate, and from a ſuperfluous enjoyment of all things, that firmneſs and that ſort of pride which have ever characteriſed their nation. A barbarous luxury, ſhameful pleaſures, and romantic intrigues, have enervated all the vigour of their minds, and ſuperſtition hath completed the ruin of their virtues. Blindly devoted to prieſts too ignorant to enlighten them by their inſtructions, too depraved to edify them by their example, and too mercenary to attend to both theſe duties of their function, they have no attachment to any part of their religion but that which enfeebles the mind, and have neglected what might have contributed to rectify their morals.

The Meſtees, who conſtitute the third order of citizens, are held in ſtill greater contempt. It is well known that the court of Madrid, in order to repleniſh a part of that dreadful vacancy which the avarice and cruelty of the conquerors had occaſioned, and to regain the confidence of thoſe who had eſcaped their fury, encouraged as much as poſſible the marriage of Spaniards with Indian women: theſe alliances, which became pretty common throughout all America, were particularly frequent in Mexico, where the women had more underſtanding and were more agreeable than in other places. The Creoles transferred to this mixed progeny the contemptuous ſlight they received from the Europeans. Their condition, equivocal at firſt, in proceſs of time was fixed between the whites and the blacks.

Theſe blacks are not very numerous in Mexico. As the natives are more intelligent, more robuſt and more induſtrious, than thoſe of the other colonies, they have hardly introduced any Africans except ſuch as were required either to indulge the caprice, or perform the domeſtic ſervice, of rich people. Theſe ſlaves, who are much beloved by their maſters, on whom they abſolutely depend, who purchaſed them at an extravagant price, and who make them the miniſters of their pleaſures, take advantage of the high favour they enjoy to oppreſs the Mexicans: they aſſume over theſe men, who are called *free*, an aſcendancy which keeps up an implacable hatred between the two nations. The law has ſtudied to encourage this averſion, by taking effectual meaſures to prevent all connection be-

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tween them. Negroes are prohibited from having any amorous correſpondence with the Indians; the men, on pain of being mutilated; the women, of being ſeverely puniſhed. On all theſe accounts, the Africans, who in other ſettlements are enemies to Europeans, are in the Spaniſh Indies their warm friends.

Authority has no need of this ſupport, at leaſt in Mexico, where population is no longer what it was formerly. The firſt hiſtorians, and thoſe who copied them, have recorded, that the Spaniards found there ten millions of ſouls. This is ſuppoſed to have been the exaggerated account of conquerors, to exalt the magnificence of their triumph; and it was adopted, without examination, with ſo much the more readineſs, as it rendered them the more odious. We need only trace with attention the progreſs of thoſe ruffians who at firſt deſolated theſe fine countries, in order to be convinced that they had not ſucceeded in multiplying men at Mexico and the adjacent parts, but by depopulating the center of the empire; and that the provinces which are remote from the capital, differed in nothing from the other deſerts of South and North-America. It is making a great conceſſion, to allow that the population of Mexico has only been exaggerated one-half, for it does not now much exceed two millions.

It is generally believed, that the firſt conquerors maſſacred the Indians out of wantonneſs, and that even the prieſts incited them to theſe acts of ferocity. Undoubtedly theſe inhuman ſoldiers frequently ſhed blood without even an apparent motive; and certainly their fanatic miſſionaries did not oppoſe theſe barbarities as they ought to have done. This was not, however, the real cauſe, the principal ſource of the depopulation of Mexico; it was the work of a ſlow tyranny, and of that avarice which exacted from its wretched inhabitants more rigorous toil than was compatible with their conſtitution and the climate.

This oppreſſion was coeval with the conqueſt of the country. All the lands were divided between the crown, the companions of Cortes, and the grandees or miniſters who were moſt in favour at the court of Spain. The Mexicans, appointed to the royal domains, were deſtined to public labours, which originally were conſiderable. The lot of thoſe who were employed on the eſtates of individuals was ſtill more wretched: all groaned under a dreadful yoke; they were ill fed, they had no wages given them, and ſervices were required

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of them, under which the moſt robuſt men would have ſunk: their misfortunes excited the compaſſion of Bartholomew de las Caſas.

This man, ſo famous in the annals of the new world, had accompanied his father in the firſt voyage made by Columbus. The mildneſs and ſimplicity of the Indians affected him ſo ſtrongly, that he made himſelf an eccleſiaſtic, in order to devote his labours to their converſion; but this ſoon became the leaſt of his attention. As he was more a man than a prieſt, he felt more for the cruelties exerciſed againſt them than for their ſuperſtitions. He was continually hurrying from one hemiſphere to the other, in order to comfort the people for whom he had conceived an attachment, or to ſoften their tyrants. This conduct, which made him idolized by the one, and dreaded by the other, had not the ſucceſs he expected. The hope of ſtriking awe, by a character revered among the Spaniards, determined him to accept the biſhopric of Chiapa in Mexico. When he was convinced that this dignity was an inſufficient barrier againſt that avarice and cruelty which he endeavoured to check, he abdicated it. It was then that this courageous, firm, diſintereſted man, accuſed his country before the tribunal of the whole univerſe. In his account of the tyranny of the Spaniards in America, he accuſes them of having deſtroyed fifteen millions of the Indians. They ventured to find fault with the acrimony of his ſtile, but no one convicted him of exaggeration. His writings, which indicate the amiable turn of his diſpoſition, and the ſublimity of his ſentiments, have ſtamped a diſgrace upon his barbarous countrymen, which time hath not, nor never will efface.

The court of Madrid, awakened by the repreſentations of the virtuous Las Caſas, and by the indignation of the whole world, became ſenſible at laſt, that the tyranny it permitted was repugnant to religion, to humanity, and to policy, and reſolved to break the chains of the Mexicans. Their liberty was now only conſtrained by the ſole condition, that they ſhould not quit the territory where they were ſettled. This precaution owed its origin to the fear that was entertained of their going to join the wandering ſavages to the north and ſouth of the empire.

With their liberty their lands ought alſo to have been reſtored to them, but this was not done. This injuſtice compelled them to work ſolely for their oppreſſors. It was only decreed, that the Spaniards, in whoſe ſervice they laboured, ſhould ſtipulate to keep them well, and pay them to the amount of five pounds five ſhillings a year.

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From theſe profits the tribute impoſed by government was ſubtracted, together with four ſhillings and four-pence half-penny for an inſtitution, which is aſtoniſhing the conquerors ſhould have thought of eſtabliſhing. This was a fund ſet apart in each community, and appropriated to the relief of ſuch Indians as were decayed or indiſpoſed, and to their ſupport under private or public calamities.

The diſtribution of this fund was committed to their caciques. Theſe were not the deſcendants of thoſe whom they found in the country at the time of the conqueſt. The Spaniards choſe them from among thoſe Indians who appeared the moſt attached to their intereſts, and were under no apprehenſion at making theſe dignities hereditary. Their authority was limited to the ſupporting the police in their diſtrict, which in general extended eight or ten leagues, to the collecting the tribute of thoſe Indians who laboured on their own account, that of the others being ſtopt by the maſters whom they ſerved, and to the preventing their flight by keeping them always under their inſpection, and not ſuffering them to contract any engagement without their conſent. As a reward of their ſervices, theſe magiſtrates obtained from government a property. They were permitted to take out of the common ſtock two-pence half-penny annually, for every Indian under their juriſdiction. At laſt they were empowered to get their fields cultivated by ſuch young men as were not yet ſubject to the poll tax; and to employ girls till the time of their marriage, in ſuch occupations as were adapted to their ſex, without allowing them any ſalary except their maintenance.

Theſe inſtitutions, which totally changed the condition of the Indians in Mexico, irritated the Spaniards to a degree not to be conceived. Their pride would not ſuffer them to conſider the Americans as free men, nor would their avarice permit them to pay for labour which hitherto had coſt them nothing. They employed themſelves ſucceſſively, or in combination, craft, remonſtrances, and violence, to effect the ſubverſion of an arrangement which ſo ſtrongly contradicted their warmeſt paſſions; but their efforts were ineffectual. Las Caſas had raiſed up for his beloved Indians protectors who ſeconded his deſign with zeal and warmth. The Mexicans themſelves finding a ſupport, impeached their oppreſſors before the tribunals, and even the tribunals that were either weak or in the intereſt of the court. They carried their reſolution ſo far, as even unanimouſly

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to refuſe to work for thoſe who had treated any of their countrymen with injuſtice. This mutual agreement, more than any other circumſtance, gave ſolidity to the regulations which had been decreed: the other, preſcribed by the laws, was gradually eſtabliſhed. There was no longer any regular ſyſtem of oppreſſion, but merely ſeveral of thoſe particular vexations which a vanquiſhed people, who have loſt their government, can hardly avoid from thoſe who have ſubued it.

Theſe clandeſtine acts of injuſtice did not prevent the Mexicans from recovering, from time to time, certain detached portions of that immenſe territory of which their fathers had been deſpoiled. They purchaſed them of the royal domain, or of the great proprietors. It was not their labour which enabled them to make theſe acquiſitions; for this they were indebted to the happineſs of having diſcovered, ſome of them, mines, others, treaſures, which had been concealed at the time of the conqueſt. The greateſt number derived their reſources from the prieſts and monks, to whom they owed their exiſtence.

Even thoſe who experienced a fortune leſs propitious, procured for themſelves, by the ſole profits of their pay, more convenience than they had enjoyed before they underwent a foreign yoke. We ſhould be very much deceived if we ſhould judge of the ancient proſperity of the inhabitants of Mexico by what has been ſaid by different writers of its emperor, its court, its capital, and the governors of its provinces. Deſpotiſm had there produced thoſe fatal effects which it produces every where. The whole ſtate was ſacrificed to the caprices, pleaſures, and magnificence, of a ſmall number of perſons.

The government drew conſiderable advantages from the mines which it cauſed to be worked, and ſtill greater from thoſe which were in the hands of individuals. The ſalt works greatly added to its revenue. Thoſe who followed agriculture, at the time of harveſt paid a kind of a third of all the produce of the lands, whether they belonged to them as their own property, or whether they were only the farmers of them. Men who lived by the chace, fiſhermen, potters, and all mechanics, paid the ſame proportion of their induſtry every month. Even the poor were taxed at certain fixed contributions, which their labour or their alms might put them in a condition to pay.

The Mexicans are now leſs unhappy; European fruits, corn and cattle, have rendered their food more wholeſome, agreeable, and abundant.

abundant. Their houſes are better built, better diſpoſed, and better furniſhed. Shoes, drawers, ſhirts, a garment of wool or cotton, a ruff, and a hat, conſtitute their dreſs. The dignity which it has been agreed to annex to theſe enjoyments, has made them better economiſts, and more laborious. This caſe, however, is far from being univerſal; it is even very uncommon in the vicinity of the mines, towns, and great roads, where tyranny ſeldom ſleeps: but we often find it with ſatisfaction in remote parts, where the Spaniards are not numerous, and where they have in ſome meaſure become Mexicans.

The employments of this people are very various; the moſt intelligent, and thoſe who are in eaſy circumſtances, devote themſelves to the moſt neceſſary and moſt uſeful manufactures, which are diſperſed through the whole empire. The moſt beautiful manufactures are eſtabliſhed among the people of Tlaſcal; their old capital, and the new one, which is called Angelos, are the center of this induſtry; here they manufacture cloth that is pretty fine, calicoes that have an agreeable appearance, certain ſlight ſilks, good hats, gold lace, embroidery, lace, glaſſes, and a great deal of hardware.

The care of flocks affords a maintenance to ſome Mexicans, whom fortune or nature have not called to more diſtinguiſhed employments. America, at the time it was diſcovered, had neither hogs, ſheep, oxen, horſes, nor even any domeſtic animal. Columbus carried ſome of theſe uſeful animals to St. Domingo, from whence they were generally diſperſed, and at Mexico more than any other place: theſe have multiplied prodigiouſly. They count their horned cattle by thouſands, whoſe ſkins are become an object of conſiderable exportation. The horſes are degenerated, but the quality is compenſated by the number. Hog's lard is here ſubſtituted for butter. Sheep's wool is dry, coarſe, and bad, as it is every where between the tropics.

The vine and olive tree have experienced the ſame degeneracy; the cultivation of them was at firſt prohibited, with a view of leaving a free market for the commodities of the mother country. In 1706, permiſſion was given to the Jeſuits, and a little afterwards to the Marquis Del Valle, a deſcendant from Cortes, to cultivate them: the attempts have not proved ſucceſsful. The trials, indeed, that have been made, have not been abandoned, but no perſon has ſolicited the liberty of following an example which did not promiſe

any great emoluments. Other cultures have been more ſucceſsful; cotton, ſugar, ſilk, cocoa, tobacco, and European corn, have all thriven in ſome degree. The Spaniards are encouraged to proſecute the labours which theſe cultures require, from the happy circumſtance of their having diſcovered iron mines, which were entirely unknown to the Mexicans, as well as ſome mines of a kind of copper that is hard enough to ſerve for implements of huſbandry; all theſe articles, however, for want of men and induſtry, are merely conſumed within the country. There is only the vanilla, indigo, and cochineal, which make a part of the trade of Mexico with other nations.

NEW-MEXICO.

New-Mexico is ſo called, becauſe of its being diſcovered later than Old-Mexico; is bounded on the north by high mountains, beyond which is a country altogether unknown; by Louiſiana on the eaſt; by New-Spain on the ſouth; and on the weſt by the gulph of California, and the Rio Colorado; extending, it is ſaid, above one hundred miles from eaſt to weſt, and about nine hundred from ſouth to north; but the twentieth part of the country within theſe limits is neither cultivated nor inhabited, either by Spaniards or Indians. As it lies in the midſt of the temperate zone, the climate, in general, is very pleaſant; the ſummers, though very warm, are neither ſultry nor unwholeſome; and the winters, though pretty ſharp, are far from being inſupportable, and, for the moſt part, clear and healthy.

The greateſt encomiums are laviſhed on the fertility of the ſoil, the richneſs of the mines, and the variety of valuable commodities produced in this country. It is ſaid to be beautifully diverſified with fields, meadows, riſing grounds, and rivers; abounding with fruit and timber trees, turquoiſes, emeralds, and other precious ſtones, mines of gold and ſilver, a great variety of wild and tame cattle, fiſh and fowls. Upon the whole, we may ſafely affirm, that New-Mexico is among the pleaſanteſt, richeſt, and moſt plentiful countries in America, or any other part of the world. There are few great or navigable rivers in it: the moſt conſiderable are, the Rio Solado, and Rio del Norte, which, with ſeveral ſmaller ſtreams, fall into the gulph of Mexico. On the coaſt of the gulph are divers bays, ports, and creeks, which might be eaſily converted into excellent harbours, if the Spaniards were poſſeſſed of any portion of that commercial ſpirit which animates the other maritime nations of Europe.

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The Spaniſh writers tell us, that New-Mexico is inhabited by a great variety of Indian nations or tribes, totally unconnected with each other; but the principal are the Apaches, a brave, warlike, reſolute people, fond of liberty, and the inveterate enemies of tyranny and oppreſſion. About the cloſe of the laſt century, thinking themſelves aggrieved by the Spaniſh government, they made a general inſurrection, and did a great deal of miſchief, but were at laſt obliged to ſubmit, and have ſince been curbed by ſtronger garriſons. Moſt of the natives are now Chriſtians. When the Spaniards firſt entered this country, they found the natives well clothed, their lands cultivated, their villages neat, and their houſes built with ſtone. Their flocks alſo were numerous, and they lived more comfortably than moſt of the other ſavages of America. As to religion, they were idolaters, and worſhipped the ſun and moon; but whether they offered human ſacrifices, we are not ſufficiently informed.

As to the number of the provinces of this country, we can advance nothing certain; ſome writers making them only five, others ten, fifteen, twenty, and twenty-five, but adding no deſcription, either of them, or the towns contained in them, excepting the capital, Santa Fé, which we are told ſtands near the ſource of the Rio del Norte, in 36° north latitude, and about one hundred and thirty leagues from the gulph; that it is a well-built, handſome, rich town, and the ſeat of the biſhop, ſuffragan of Mexico, as well as the governor of the province, who is ſubordinate to the viceroy of Mexico, or New-Spain.

CALIFORNIA.

California is the moſt northerly of all the Spaniſh dominions on the continent of America, is ſometimes diſtinguiſhed by the name of New-Albion, and the Iſlas Carabiras; but the moſt ancient appellation is California, a word probably owing to ſome accident, or to ſome words ſpoken by the Indians and miſunderſtood by the Spaniards. For a long time California was thought to be an iſland, but Father Caino, a German Jeſuit, diſcovered it to be a peninſula joining to the coaſt of New-Mexico, and the ſouthern parts of America. This peninſula extends from Cape St. Sebaſtian, lying in north latitude 43° 30′, to Cape St. Lucar, which lies in north latitude 22° 32′. It is divided from New-Mexico by the gulph, or, as ſome call it, the lake of California, or Vermillion ſea, on the eaſt; on the north, by that part of the continent of North-America which is leaſt known; and on the weſt and ſouth, by the Pacific ocean or great South ſea. The

coaſts, eſpecially towards the Vermillion ſea, are covered with inhabited iſlands, on ſome of which the Jeſuits have eſtabliſhed ſettlements, ſuch as St. Clement, Paxaros, St. Anne, Cedars, ſo called from the great number of theſe trees it produces, St. Joſeph, and a multitude of others. But the iſlands beſt known, are three lying off cape St. Lucas, towards the Mexican coaſt. Theſe are called Les Tres Marias, "the three Maries." They are but ſmall, have good wood and water, ſalt pits, and abundance of game; therefore the Engliſh and French pirates have ſometimes wintered there, when bound on cruizes in the South Seas.

As California lies altogether within the temperate zone, the natives are neither chilled with cold, nor ſcorched with heat; and, indeed, the improvements in agriculture made by the Jeſuits, afford ſtrong proofs of the excellency of the climate. In ſome places the air is extremely hot and dry, and the earth wild, rugged, and barren. In a country ſtretching about eight hundred miles in length, there muſt be a conſiderable variation of ſoil and climate; and, indeed, we find, from good authority, that California produces ſome of the moſt beautiful lawns, as well as many of the moſt inhoſpitable deſarts in the univerſe. Upon the whole, although California is rather rough and craggy, we are aſſured by the Jeſuit Vinegas, and other good writers, that with due culture, it furniſhes every neceſſary and conveniency of life; and that even where the atmoſphere is hotteſt, vapours riſing from the ſea, and diſperſed by pleaſant breezes, render it of a moderate temperature.

The peninſula of California is now ſtocked with all ſorts of domeſtic animals known in Spain and Mexico. Horſes, mules, aſſes, oxen, ſheep, hogs, goats, and all other quadrupeds imported, thrive and increaſe in this country. Among the native animals is a ſpecies of deer, of the ſize of a young heifer, and greatly reſembling it in ſhape; the head is like that of a deer, and the horns thick and crooked like thoſe of a ram. The hoof of the animal is large, round, and cloven, the ſkin ſpotted, but the hair thinner, and the tail ſharper than thoſe of a deer. Its fleſh is greatly eſteemed. There is another animal peculiar to this country, larger and more bulky than a ſheep, but greatly reſembling it in figure, and, like it, covered with a fine black or white wool. The fleſh of this animal is nouriſhing and delicious, and, happily for the natives, is ſo abundant, that nothing more is required than the trouble of hunting, as theſe animals wander about in droves in the foreſts and on the mountains. Father Torquemado

deſcribes

deſcribes a creature which he calls a ſpecies of large bear, ſomething like a buffalo, of the ſize of a ſteer, and nearly of the figure of a ſtag; its hair is a quarter of a yard in length, its neck long and aukward, and on its forehead are horns branched like thoſe of a ſtag. The tail is a yard in length, and half a yard in breadth, and the hoofs cloven like thoſe of an ox. With regard to birds, we have but an imperfect account; only, in general, Father Venegas tells us, that the coaſt is plentifully ſtored with peacocks, buſtards, geeſe, cranes, and moſt of the birds common in other parts of the world. The quantity of fiſh which reſort to theſe coaſts are incredible. Salmon, turbot, barbel, ſkate, mackerel, &c. are caught here with very little trouble; together with pearl oyſters, common oyſters, lobſters, and a variety of exquiſite ſhell fiſh. Plenty of turtle are alſo caught on the coaſts. On the South ſea coaſts are ſome ſhell fiſh peculiar to it, and perhaps the moſt beautiful in the world; their luſtre ſurpaſſing that of the fineſt pearl, and darting their rays through a tranſparent varniſh of an elegant vivid blue, like the lapis lazuli. The fame of California for pearls ſoon drew forth great numbers of adventurers, who ſearched every part of the gulph, and are ſtill employed in that work, notwithſtanding faſhion has greatly diminiſhed the value of this elegant natural production. Father Torquemado obſerves, that the ſea of California affords very rich pearl fiſheries, and that the hoſtias, or beds of oyſters, may be ſeen in three or four fathoms water, almoſt as plain as if they were on the ſurface.

The extremity of the peninſula towards cape St. Lucar is more level, temperate, and fertile than the other parts, and conſequently more woody. In the more diſtant parts, even to the fartheſt miſſions on the eaſt coaſt, no large timber hath yet been diſcovered. A ſpecies of manna is found in this country, which, according to the accounts of the Jeſuits, has all the ſweetneſs of refined ſugar without its whiteneſs. The natives firmly believe that the juice drops from heaven.

The Californians are well made, and very ſtrong; they are extremely puſillanimous, inconſtant, ſtupid, and even inſenſible, and ſeem deſerving of the character given to the Indians in general. Before the Europeans penetrated into California, the natives had no form of religion. The miſſionaries, indeed, tell us many tales concerning them, but they ſo evidently bear the marks of forgery, as not to be worth repeating. Each nation was then an aſſemblage of ſeveral cottages more or leſs numerous, that were all mutually confederated

derated by alliances, but without any chief. They were ſtrangers even to filial obedience. No kind of dreſs was uſed by the men, but the women made uſe of ſome covering, and were even fond of ornamenting themſelves with pearls and ſuch other trinkets as the country afforded. What moſtly diſplayed their ingenuity was the conſtruction of their fiſhing nets, which are ſaid by the Jeſuits to have even exceeded in goodneſs thoſe made in Europe; they were made by the women, of a coarſe kind of flax procured from ſome plants which grow there. Their houſes were built of branches and leaves of trees; nay, many of them were only incloſures of earth and ſtone, raiſed half a yard high, without any covering, and even theſe were ſo ſmall, that they could not ſtretch themſelves at length in them. In winter they dwelt under ground, in caves either natural or artificial.

In 1526, Ferdinand Cortes having reduced and ſettled Mexico, attempted the conqueſt of California, but was obliged to return, without even taking a ſurvey of the country, a report of his death having diſpoſed the Mexicans to general inſurrection. Some other attempts were made by the officers of Cortes, but theſe were alſo unſucceſsful, and this valuable coaſt was long neglected by the Spaniards, who, to this day, have but one ſettlement upon it. In 1595, a galleon was ſent to make diſcoveries on the Californian ſhore, but the veſſel was unfortunately loſt. Seven years after, the Count de Monteroy, then viceroy of New-Spain, ſent Sebaſtian Biſcayno on the ſame deſign with two ſhips and a tender, but he made no diſcovery of importance. In 1684, the Marquis de Laguna, alſo viceroy of New-Spain, diſpatched two ſhips with a tender to make diſcoveries on the lake of California; he returned with an indifferent account, but was among the firſt that aſſerted that California was not an iſland, which was afterwards confirmed by Father Caino, as already related. In 1697, the Spaniards being diſcouraged by their loſſes and diſappointments, the Jeſuits ſolicited and obtained permiſſion to undertake the conqueſt of California. They arrived among the ſavages with curioſities that might amuſe them, corn for their food, and clothes for which they could not but perceive the neceſſity. The hatred theſe people bore the Spaniſh name, could not ſupport itſelf againſt theſe demonſtrations of benevolence. They teſtified their acknowledgments as much as their want of ſenſibility and their inconſtancy would permit them. Theſe faults were partly overcome by the religious inſtitutors, who purſued their project with a degree of warmth and reſolution peculiar to the ſociety. They made themſelves

ſelves carpenters, maſons, weavers, and huſbandmen; and by theſe means ſucceeded in imparting knowledge, and in ſome meaſure a taſte for the uſeful arts, to this ſavage people, who have been all ſucceſſively formed into one body. In 1745, they compoſed forty-three villages, ſeparated from each other by the barrenneſs of the ſoil and the want of water. The inhabitants of theſe ſmall villages ſubſiſt principally on corn and pulſe, which they cultivate, and on the fruits and domeſtic animals of Europe, the breeding of which laſt is an object of continual attention. The Indians have each their field, and the property of what they reap; but ſuch is their want of foreſight, that they would ſquander in a day what they had gathered, if the miſſionary did not take upon himſelf to diſtribute it to them as they ſtood in need of it. They manufacture ſome coarſe ſtuffs, and the neceſſaries they are in want of are purchaſed with pearls, and with wine nearly reſembling that of Madeira, which they ſell to the Mexicans and to the galleons, and which experience hath ſhown the neceſſity of prohibiting in California. A few laws, which are very ſimple, are ſufficient to regulate this riſing ſtate. In order to inforce them, the miſſionary chooſes the moſt intelligent perſon of the village, who is empowered to whip and impriſon, the only puniſhments of which they have any knowledge. In all California, there are only two garriſons, each conſiſting of thirty men, and a ſoldier with every miſſionary; theſe troops were choſen by the legiſlators, though they are paid by the government. Were the court of Madrid to puſh their intereſt with half the zeal of the Jeſuits, California might become one of the moſt valuable of their acquiſitions, on account of the pearls and other valuable articles of commerce which the country contains. At preſent, the little Spaniſh town near cape St. Lucar is made uſe of for no other purpoſe than as a place of refreſhment for the Manilla ſhips, and the head reſidence of the miſſionaries.

GOVERNMENT, COMMERCE, &c.

The civil government of all this vaſt country, included in the general name of Mexico, is adminiſtered by tribunals, called audiences, three of which are held in Old, and two in New-Mexico. In theſe courts the viceroy of the King of Spain preſides; his employment is the greateſt truſt and power his Catholic Majeſty has at his diſpoſal, and is perhaps the richeſt government intruſted to any ſubject in the world. The viceroy continues in office three years.

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The clergy are exceedingly numerous in Mexico; the prieſts, monks, and nuns, of all orders, make a fifth part of the white inhabitants, both here and in other parts of Spaniſh America.

The city of Mexico is the oldeſt in America, of which we have any account. The Abbé Clavigero, who is our authority for the preceding account of this country, dates its foundation as far back as 1325. It is ſituated in the charming vale of Mexico, on ſeveral ſmall iſlands, in lake Tetzcuco, in north latitude 19° 26′, and 276° 34′ weſt longitude from Perro. This vale is ſurrounded with lofty and verdant mountains, and formerly contained no leſs than forty eminent cities, beſides villages and hamlets. The city is ſubject to frequent inundations, as is eaſily accounted for from its local ſituation, the lake in which it ſtands being the reſervoir of the waters flowing from the neighbouring mountains.

Concerning the ancient population of this city there are various opinions. The hiſtorians moſt to be relied on ſay, that it was nearly nine miles in circumference, and contained upwards of ſixty thouſand houſes, containing each from four to ten inhabitants. Some hiſtorians reckon one hundred and twenty thouſand, and ſome one hundred and thirty thouſand houſes. By a late accurate enumeration, made by the magiſtrates and prieſts, it appears that the preſent number of inhabitants exceeds two hundred thouſand. We may form ſome idea of its populouſneſs from the quantity of pulque * and tobacco which are daily conſumed in it, aſcertained from the cuſtom-houſe books, February 23, 1775. Every day upwards of one hundred and ninety thouſand pounds of pulque are carried into the city, which are almoſt ſolely conſumed by the Indians and Mulattoes, who drink this beverage. The tax upon it amounts annually to about two hundred and eighty thouſand crowns. The daily conſumption of tobacco is reckoned at one thouſand two hundred and fifty crowns.

The greateſt curioſity in the city of Mexico is their floating gardens. When the Mexicans, about the year 1325, were ſubdued by the Colhuan and Tepanecan nations, and confined to the ſmall iſlands in the lake, having no land to cultivate, they were taught by neceſſity to form moveable gardens, which floated on the lake. Their

* Pulque is the uſual wine or beer of the Mexicans, made of the fermented juice of the maguei. This liquor will not keep but one day, and therefore what is made is daily conſumed.

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conſtruction is very ſimple. They take willows and the roots of marſh plants, and other materials which are light, and twiſt them together, and ſo firmly unite them as to form a ſort of platform, which is capable of ſupporting the earth of the garden. Upon this foundation they lay the light buſhes which float on the lake, and overſpread the mud and dirt which they draw up from the bottom of the lake. Their regular figure is quadrangular; their length and breadth various, but generally about eight rods long and three wide; and their elevation from the ſurface of the water is leſs than a foot. Theſe were the firſt fields that the Mexicans owned after the foundation of Mexico; there they firſt cultivated the maize, great pepper, and other plants neceſſary for their ſupport. From the induſtry of the people theſe fields ſoon became numerous. At preſent they cultivate flowers and every ſort of garden herbs upon them. Every day of the year, at ſun-riſe, innumerable veſſels or boats, loaded with various kinds of flowers and herbs which are cultivated in theſe gardens, are ſeen arriving by the canal at the great market place of Mexico. All plants thrive in them ſurpriſingly; the mud of the lake makes a very rich ſoil, which requires no water from the clouds. In the largeſt gardens there is commonly a little tree, and a little hut to ſhelter the cultivator, and defend him from the rain or the ſun. When the owner of a garden, or the Chinampa, as he is called, wiſhes to change his ſituation, to get out of a bad neighbourhood, or to come nearer to his family, he gets into his little boat, and by his own ſtrength alone, if the garden is ſmall, or with the aſſiſtance of others, if it is large, conducts it wherever he pleaſes, with the little tree and hut upon it. That part of the iſland where theſe floating gardens are, is a place of delightful recreation, where the ſenſes receive the higheſt poſſible gratification.

The buildings, which are of ſtone, are convenient, and the public edifices, eſpecially the churches, are magnificent, and the city has the appearance of immenſe wealth.

The trade of Mexico conſiſts of three great branches, which extend over the whole world. It carries on a traffic with Europe, by La Vera Cruz, ſituated on the gulph of Mexico, on the North ſea; with the Eaſt-Indies, by Acapulco on the ſouth ſeas, two hundred and ten miles ſouth-weſt, of Mexico; and with South-America, by the ſame port. Theſe two ſea ports, Vera Cruz and Acapulco, are admirably well ſituated for the commercial purpoſes to which they were applied. It is by means of the former that Mexico pours her wealth

over the whole world, and receives in return the numberleſs luxuries and neceſſaries which Europe affords her. To this port the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, conſiſting of three men of war, as a convoy, and fourteen large merchant ſhips, annually arrives about the beginning of November. Its cargo conſiſts of almoſt every commodity and manufacture of Europe; and there are few nations but have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who ſend out little except wine and oil. The profit of theſe, with the freight and commiſſion to the merchants, and duty to the king, is all the advantage which Spain derives from the American commerce. When all the goods are landed and diſpoſed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious ſtones, and other commodities for Europe. Some time in May they are ready to depart. From La Vera Cruz they ſail to the Havannah, in the iſle of Cuba, which is the rendezvous where they meet the galleons, another fleet which carries on the trade of Terra Firma by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello. When all are collected and provided with a convoy neceſſary for their ſafety, they ſteer for Old-Spain.

Acapulco is the ſea port by which the communication is kept up between the different parts of the Spaniſh empire in America, and the Eaſt-Indies. About the month of December, the great galleon, attended by a large ſhip as a convoy, which make the only communication between the Philippines and Mexico, annually arrive here. The cargoes of theſe ſhips (for the convoy, though in a clandeſtine manner, likewiſe carries goods) conſiſt of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the eaſt. At the ſame time the annual ſhip from Lima, the capital of Peru, comes in, and is computed to bring not leſs than two millions of pieces of eight in ſilver, beſides quick-ſilver, and other valuable commodities, to be laid out in the purchaſe of the galleons cargoes. Several other ſhips, from different parts of Chili and Peru, meet upon the ſame occaſion. A great fair, in which the commodities of all parts of the world are bartered for one another, laſts thirty days. The galleon then prepares for her voyage, loaded with ſilver and ſuch European goods as have been thought neceſſary. The Spaniards, though this trade be carried on entirely through their hands, and in the very heart of their dominions, are comparatively but ſmall gainers by it. For as they allow the Dutch, Great-Britain, and other commercial ſtates, to furniſh the greater part of the cargo of the flota, ſo the Spaniſh inhabitants of the Philippines, tainted with the indolence which ruined their Euro-

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pean anceſtors, permit the Chineſe merchants to furniſh the greater part of the cargo of the galleon. Notwithſtanding what has been ſaid of Vera Cruz and Acapulco, the city of Mexico, the capital of the empire, ought to be conſidered as the center of commerce in this part of the world; for here the principal merchants reſide, and the greateſt part of the buſineſs is negociated. The Eaſt-India goods from Acapulco, and the European from Vera Cruz, alſo paſs through this city. Hither all the gold and ſilver come to be coined, here the king's fifth is depoſited, and here are wrought all thoſe utenſils and ornaments in plate, which are every year ſent into Europe.

The empire of Mexico was finally ſubdued by Cortes, in the year 1521. Montezuma was at that time emperor of Mexico. In the courſe of the war, he was treacherouſly taken by Cortes, and held as a priſoner. During the impriſonment of Montezuma, Cortes and his army had made repeated attacks on his ſubjects, but without ſucceſs. Cortes was now determined, as his laſt reſource, to try what effect the interpoſition of Montezuma might have to ſoothe or overawe his ſubjects. This unfortunate prince, at the mercy of the treacherous Spaniards, and reduced to the ſad neceſſity of becoming the inſtrument of his own diſgrace, and of the ſlavery of his ſubjects, advanced to the battlements in his royal robes, in all the pomp in which he uſed to appear on ſolemn occaſions. At ſight of their ſovereign, whom they had long been accuſtomed to honour, and almoſt to revere as a god, the weapons dropped from their hands, every tongue was ſilent, all bowed their heads, and many proſtrated themſelves on the ground. Montezuma addreſſed them with every argument that could mitigate their rage, or perſuade them from hoſtilities. When he ended his diſcourſe, a ſullen murmur of diſapprobation ran through the crowd; to this ſucceeded reproaches and threats; and their fury riſing in a moment, they violently poured in whole flights of arrows and vollies of ſtones upon their unhappy monarch, two of the arrows ſtruck him in his body, which, with the blow of a ſtone on his temple, put an end to his life. Guatimozin ſucceeded Montezuma, and maintained a vigorous oppoſition againſt the aſſaults of Cortes; but he, like his predeceſſor, after a noble defence, was forced to ſubmit, and his capital was wreſted from him by Cortes and his followers.

The exultation of the Spaniards, on accompliſhing this arduous enterpriſe, was at firſt exceſſive. But this was quickly damped by the

cruel diſappointment of thoſe ſanguine hopes which had animated them amidſt ſo many hardſhips and dangers. Inſtead of the inexhauſtible wealth which they expected from becoming maſters of Montezuma's treaſures, and the ornaments of ſo many temples, their rapaciouſneſs could collect only an inconſiderable booty amidſt ruins and deſolation.* Guatimozin, aware of his impending fate, had ordered what remained of the riches amaſſed by his anceſtors to be thrown into the lake. The Indian auxiliaries, while the Spaniards were engaged in conflict with the enemy, had carried off the moſt valuable part of the ſpoil. The ſum to be divided among the conquerors was ſo ſmall, that many of them diſdained to accept of the pittance which fell to their ſhare, and all murmured and exclaimed; ſome againſt Cortes and his confidents, whom they ſuſpected of having ſecretly appropriated to their own uſe a large portion of the riches which ſhould have been brought into the common ſtock; others againſt Guatimozin, whom they accuſed of obſtinacy, in refuſing to diſcover the place where he had hidden his treaſure.

Arguments, intreaties, and promiſes, were employed in order to ſoothe them, but with ſo little effect, that Cortes, from ſolicitude to check this growing ſpirit of diſcontent, gave way to a deed which ſtained the glory of all his great actions. Without regarding the former dignity of Guatimozin, or feeling any reverence for thoſe virtues which he had diſplayed, he ſubjected the unhappy monarch, together with his chief favourite, to torture, in order to force from them a diſcovery of the royal treaſures, which it was ſuppoſed they had concealed. Guatimozin bore whatever the refined cruelty of his tormentors could inflict, with the invincible fortitude of an American warrior. His fellow-ſufferer, overcome by the violence of the anguiſh, turned a dejected eye towards his maſter, which ſeemed to implore his permiſſion to reveal all he knew. But the high-ſpirited prince, darting on him a look of authority mingled with ſcorn, checked his weakneſs, by aſking, "Am I now repoſing on a bed of "flowers?" Overawed by the reproach, he perſevered in his dutiful ſilence, and expired. Cortes, aſhamed of a ſcene ſo horrid, reſcued the royal victim from the hands of his torturers, and prolonged a life reſerved for new indignities and ſufferings.

* The gold and ſilver, according to Cortes, amounted only to one hundred and twenty thouſand peſos, a ſum far inferior to that which the Spaniards had formerly divided in Mexico.

The fate of the capital, as both parties had foreſeen, decided that of the empire. The provinces ſubmitted one after another to the conquerors. Small detachments of Spaniards marching through them without interruption, penetrated, in different quarters, to the great Southern ocean, which, according to the ideas of Columbus, they imagined would open a ſhort, as well as an eaſy paſſage to the Eaſt-Indies, and ſecure to the crown of Caſtile all the envied wealth of thoſe fertile regions; and the active mind of Cortes began already to form ſchemes for attempting this important diſcovery. In his after ſchemes, however, he was diſappointed, but Mexico hath ever ſince remained in the hands of the Spaniards.

VIEW

VIEW OF

SOUTH-AMERICA.

WE now enter upon the deſcription of that part of the globe, where the human mind will be ſucceſſively ſurpriſed with the ſublime and aſtoniſhing works of Nature; where rivers of amazing breadth flow through beautiful and widely-extended plains, and where lofty mountains, whoſe ſummits are covered with eternal ſnow, intercept the courſe of the clouds, and hide their heads from the view of mortals. In ſome parts of this extenſive region, nature has bountifully beſtowed her treaſures, and given every thing neceſſary for the convenience and happineſs of man. We have only to regret, that a ſet of avaricious men have ſucceſſively drenched with innocent blood theſe plains, which are ſo beautifully formed and enriched by the hand of Nature; and that the rod of SPANISH DESPOTISM has prevented the population of a country which might have ſupported millions of beings in affluence.

DIVISIONS.

South-America, like Africa, is an extenſive peninſula, connected with North-America by the iſthmus of Darien, and divided between SPAIN, PORTUGAL, FRANCE, HOLLAND, and the ABORIGINES, as follows:

SPANISH DOMINIONS,	Terra Firma, Peru, Chili, Paraguay.
PORTUGUESE, . . .	Brazil,
FRENCH, ...	Cayenne,
DUTCH, ...	Surinam,
ABORIGINES,	Amazonia, Patagonia.

Of theſe countries we ſhall treat in their order.

SPANISH

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SPANISH DOMINIONS

IN

SOUTH-AMERICA.

TERRA FIRMA, *or* CASTILE DEL ORO.

TERRA FIRMA is ſituated between 60° and 82° weſt longitude, and the equator and 12° degrees north latitude; its length is one thouſand four hundred miles, and its breadth ſeven hundred: it is bounded on the north by the Atlantic ocean, (called there the North ſea;) on the eaſt by the Atlantic ocean and Surinam; on the ſouth by Amazonia and Peru; and on the weſt by the Pacific ocean. It is divided into two grand diviſions, NORTH and SOUTH; theſe are again ſubdivided into provinces.

The northern diviſion containing, 1. DARIEN, or TERRA FIRMA PROPER: 2. CARTHAGENA: 3. St. MARTHA: 4. VENEZEULA: 5. COMANA: 6. PARIA, or NEW-ANDALUSIA.

The ſouthern diviſion containing, 1. NEW-GRANADA: 2. POPAYAN.

DARIEN, OR TERRA FIRMA PROPER.

Darien is the narrow iſthmus, or neck of land, that, properly ſpeaking, joins North and South-America together, but is generally reckoned as part of the latter. It is bounded on the north by the North ſea, on the ſouth by the South ſea, on the eaſt by the gulph or river of Darien, and on the weſt by another part of the South ſea and the province of Veragua. It lies in the form of a bow, or creſcent, about the great bay of Panama in the South ſea, and is three hundred miles in length and ſixty in breadth. This province is not the richeſt, but is of the greateſt importance to Spain, and has been the ſcene of more actions than any other in America. The wealth of Peru is brought hither, and from hence exported to Europe. This has induced many enterpriſing people to make attempts on Panama, Porto-Bello, and other towns of this province, in hopes of obtaining a rich booty.

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The Scotch got poſſeſſion of part of this province in 1699, and attempted to form an eſtabliſhment, which would have proved one of the moſt uſeful and important that ever was projected. Of the riſe, progreſs and cataſtrophe, of this well-imagined, but ill-fated, undertaking, Sir John Dalrymple, in the ſecond volume of his Memoirs of Great-Britain and Ireland, has given a very intereſting account, authenticated in every particular by unqueſtionable documents. The projector and leader of the Darien expedition was a clergyman of the name of Paterſon; who having a violent propenſity to ſee foreign countries, he made his profeſſion the inſtrument of indulging it, by going to the new weſtern world, under pretence of converting the Indians to the religion of the old. In his courſes there, he became acquainted with Capt. Dampier and Mr. Wafer, who afterwards publiſhed, the one his Voyages and the other his Travels, in the region where the ſeparation is narroweſt between the Atlantic and the South ſeas; and both of whom, particularly the firſt, appear by their books to have been men of conſiderable obſervation. But he got much more knowledge from men who could neither write nor read, by cultivating the acquaintance of ſome of the old Buccaneers, who, after ſurviving their glories and their crimes, ſtill, in the extremity of age and misfortune, recounted with tranſport the eaſe with which they had paſſed and repaſſed from the one ſea to the other, ſometimes in hundreds together, and driving ſtrings of mules before them loaded with the plunder of friends and of foes. Paterſon, having examined the places, ſatisfied himſelf, that on the iſthmus of Darien there was a tract of country running acroſs from the Atlantic to the South ſea, which the Spaniards had never poſſeſſed, and inhabited by a people continually at war with them; that along the coaſt, on the Atlantic ſide, there lay a ſtring of iſlands called the Sambaloes, uninhabited, and full of natural ſtrength and foreſts, from which laſt circumſtance one of them was called the *iſland of the Pines*; that the ſeas there were filled with turtle, and the manatee or ſea-cow; that mid-way between Porto Bello and Carthagena, but near fifty leagues diſtant from either, at a place called Acta, in the mouth of the river of Darien, there was a natural harbour, capable of receiving the greateſt fleets, and defended from ſtorms by other iſlands which covered the mouth of it, and from enemies by a promontory which commanded the paſſage, and hidden rocks in the paſſage itſelf; that on the other ſide of the iſthmus, and in the ſame tract of country, there were natural harbours, equally capacious

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and well defended; that the two ſeas were connected by a ridge of hills, which, by their height, created a temperate climate in the midſt of the moſt ſultry latitudes, and were ſheltered by foreſts, not yet rendered damp by them, becauſe the trees grew at a diſtance from each other, having very little underwood; that, contrary to the barren nature of hilly countries, the ſoil was of a black mould two or three feet deep, and producing ſpontaneouſly the fine tropical fruits and plants, and roots and herbs; that roads could be made with eaſe along the ridge, by which mules, and even carriages, might paſs from the one ſea to the other in the ſpace of a day; and conſequently this paſſage ſeemed to be pointed out by the finger of Nature, as a common center, to connect together the trade and intercourſe of the univerſe.

Paterſon knew that ſhips which ſtretch in a ſtraight line from one point to another, and with one wind, run leſs riſks, and require fewer hands, than ſhips which paſs through many latitudes, turn with many coaſts, and require many winds; in evidence of which, veſſels of ſeven or eight hundred tons burthen are often to be found in the South ſeas, navigated by no more than eight or ten hands, becauſe theſe hands have little elſe to do than ſet their ſails when they begin their voyage, and to take them in when they end it; that as ſoon as ſhips from Britain got ſo far ſouth as to reach the trade wind, which never varies, that wind would carry them to Darien, and the ſame wind would carry ſhips from the bay of Panama, on the oppoſite ſide of the iſthmus, to the Eaſt-Indies; that as ſoon as ſhips coming from the Eaſt-Indies to the bay of Panama got ſo far north as the latitude of forty degrees, to reach the weſterly winds, which, about that latitude, blow almoſt as regularly from the weſt as the trade winds do from the eaſt, theſe winds would carry them, in the track of the Spaniſh Acapulco ſhips, to the coaſt of Mexico; from whence the land-wind, which blows for ever from the north to the ſouth, would carry them along the coaſt of Mexico into the bay of Panama. So that in going from Britain, ſhips would encounter no uncertain winds, except during their paſſage ſouth into the latitude of the trade wind: in coming from India to the bay of Panama, no uncertain winds, except in their paſſage north to the latitude of the weſterly winds; and in going from the other ſide of the iſthmus to the eaſt, no uncertain wind whatſoever.—Gold was ſeen by Paterſon in ſome places of the iſthmus, and hence an iſland on the Atlantic ſide was called the Golden iſland, and a river on the ſide

to the South ſea was called the Golden river; but theſe were objects which he regarded not at that time, becauſe far greater were in his eye: the removing of diſtances, the drawing nations nearer to each other, the preſervation of the valuable lives of ſeamen, and the ſaving in freight, ſo important to merchants, and in time ſo important to them, and to an animal whoſe life is of ſo ſhort duration as that of man.

By this obſcure Scotchman, a project was formed to ſettle, on this neglected ſpot, a great and powerful colony; not as other colonies have for the moſt part been ſettled, by chance, and unprotected by the country from whence they went; but by ſyſtem, upon foreſight, and to receive the ample protection of thoſe governments to whom he was to offer his project: and certainly no greater idea has been formed ſince the time of Columbus.

Paterſon's original intention was to offer his project to England, as the country which had moſt intereſt in it, not only from the benefit common to all nations, of ſhortening the length of voyages to the Eaſt-Indies, but by the effect which it would have had to connect the intereſts of her European, Weſt-Indian, American, African and Eaſt-Indian trade. But Paterſon having few acquaintance, and no protection in London, thought of drawing the public eye upon him, and ingratiating himſelf with monied men and with great men, by aſſiſting them to model a project, which was at that time in embryo, for erecting the Bank of England. But that happened to him which has happened to many in his ſituation; the perſons to whom he applied made uſe of his ideas, took the honour of them to themſelves, were civil to him for a while, and neglected him afterwards. He therefore communicated his project of a colony only to a few perſons in London, and theſe few diſcouraged him.

He next made offer of his project to the Dutch, the Hamburghers, and the elector of Brandenburgh; becauſe, by means of the paſſage of the Rhine and Elbe through their ſtates, he thought, that the great additional quantities of Eaſt-Indian and American goods, which his colony would bring into Europe, would be diſtributed through Germany. The Dutch and Hamburgh merchants, who had moſt intereſt in the ſubject of his viſit, heard him with indifference: the elector, who had very little intereſt in it, received him with honour and kindneſs. But court arts and falſe reports loſt him even that prince's favour.

Paterſon,

Paterſon, on his return to London, formed a friendſhip with Mr. Fletcher of Salton, whoſe mind was inflamed with the love of public good, and all of whoſe ideas to procure it had a ſublimity in them. Fletcher brought Paterſon down to Scotland with him, preſented him to the Marquis of Tweedale, then miniſter for Scotland; and then, with that power which a vehement ſpirit always poſſeſſes over a diffident one, perſuaded the Marquis by arguments of public good, and the honour which would redound to his adminiſtration, to adopt the project. Lord Stair and Mr. Johnſton, the two ſecretaries of ſtate, patroniſed thoſe abilities in Paterſon which they poſſeſſed in themſelves; and the lord advocate, Sir James Stuart, the ſame man who had adjuſted the Prince of Orange's declaration at the revolution, whoſe ſon was married to a niece of Lord Stair, went naturally along with his connections. Theſe perſons, in June 1695, procured a ſtatute from parliament, and afterwards a charter from the crown in terms of it, for creating a trading company to Africa and the new world, with power to plant colonies and build forts, with conſent of the inhabitants, in places not poſſeſſed by other European nations.

Paterſon, now finding the ground firm under him, and that he was ſupported by almoſt all the power and talents of his country, the character of Fletcher, and the ſanction of an act of parliament and royal charter, threw his project boldly upon the public, and opened a ſubſcription for a company. The frenzy of the Scotch nation to ſign the ſolemn league and covenant, never exceeded the rapidity with which they ran to ſubſcribe to the Darien company. The nobility, the gentry, the merchants, the people, the royal burghs without the exception of one, and moſt of the other public bodies, ſubſcribed. Young women threw their little fortunes into the ſtock; widows ſold their jointures to get the command of money for the ſame purpoſe. Almoſt in an inſtant four hundred thouſand pounds were ſubſcribed in Scotland, although it be now known, that there was not at that time above eight hundred thouſand pounds of caſh in the kingdom. The famous Mr. Law, then a youth, afterwards confeſſed, that the facility with which he ſaw the paſſion of ſpeculation communicate itſelf from all to all, ſatisfied him of the poſſibility of producing the ſame effect from the ſame cauſe, but upon a larger ſcale, when the Duke of Orleans, in the year of the Miſſiſſippi, engaged him againſt his will to turn his bank into a bubble. Paterſon's project, which had been received by ſtrangers with fears when opened

to them in private, filled them with hopes when it came to them upon the wings of public fame: for Col. Erſkine, ſon to Lord Cardroſs, and Mr. Haldane, of Gleneagles, the one a generous branch of a generous ſtem, and the other a country gentleman of fortune and character, having been deputed to receive ſubſcriptions in England and on the continent, the Engliſh ſubſcribed three hundred thouſand pounds, and the Dutch and Hamburghers two hundred thouſand pounds more.

In the mean time the jealouſy of trade, which has done more miſchief to the trade of England than all other cauſes put together, created an alarm in England; and the Houſes of Lords and Commons, without previous inquiry and reflection, on the 13th of December, 1695, concurred in a joint addreſs to the king againſt the eſtabliſhment of the Darien company, as detrimental to the intereſt of the Eaſt-India company. Soon after, the Commons impeached ſome of their own countrymen for being inſtrumental in erecting the company; and alſo ſome of the Scotch nation, one of whom was a peer, Lord Belhaven; that is to ſay, they arraigned the ſubjects of another country, for making uſe of the laws of their own. Among ſix hundred legiſlators, not one had the happy ray of genius to propoſe a committee of both parliaments, to inquire into the principles and conſequences of the eſtabliſhment; and if theſe ſhould, upon inquiry, be found, that the benefit of it ſhould be communicated, by a participation of rights to both nations. The king's anſwer was, "That he had been ill-adviſed in Scotland." He ſoon after changed his Scottiſh miniſters, and ſent orders to his reſident at Hamburgh to preſent a memorial to the ſenate, in which he diſowned the company, and warned them againſt all connections with it. The ſenate ſent the memorial to the aſſembly of merchants, who returned it with the following ſpirited anſwer: "We look upon it as a very ſtrange thing, that the King of Britain ſhould offer to hinder us, who are a free people, to trade with whom we pleaſe; but are amazed to think, that he would hinder us from joining with his own ſubjects in Scotland, to whom he had lately given ſuch large privileges, by ſo ſolemn an act of parliament." But merchants, though mighty prone to paſſion, are eaſily intimidated. The Dutch, Hamburgh, and London merchants, withdrew their ſubſcriptions.

The Scotch, not diſcouraged, were rather animated by this oppreſſion; for they converted it into a proof of the envy of the Engliſh, and of their conſciouſneſs of the great advantages which were

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to flow to Scotland from the colony. The company proceeded to build ſix ſhips in Holland, from thirty-ſix to ſixty guns, and they engaged twelve hundred men for the colony; among whom were younger ſons of many of the noble and moſt ancient families of Scotland, and ſixty officers who had been diſbanded at the peace, who carried with them ſuch of their private men generally raiſed on their own, or the eſtates of their relations, as they knew to be faithful and brave; and moſt of thoſe were Highlanders. The Scotch parliament, on the 5th of Auguſt, 1698, unanimouſly addreſſed the king to ſupport the company. The lord preſident, Sir Hugh Dalrymple, brother to Lord Stair, and head of the bench, and the lord advocate, Sir James Stuart, head of the bar, jointly drew memorials to the king, able in point of argument, information and arrangement: in which they defended the rights of the company upon the principles of conſtitutional and of public law. And neighbouring nations, with a mixture of ſurpriſe and reſpect, ſaw the pooreſt kingdom of Europe ſending forth the moſt gallant and the moſt numerous colony that had ever gone from the old to the new world.

On the 26th of July, of the year 1698, the whole city of Edinburgh poured down upon Leith to ſee the colony depart, amidſt the tears, and prayers and praiſes of relations and friends, and of their countrymen. Many ſeamen and ſoldiers, whoſe ſervices had been refuſed, becauſe more had offered themſelves than were needed, were found hid in the ſhips, and, when ordered aſhore, clung to the ropes and timbers, imploring to go without reward with their companions. Twelve hundred men ſailed in five ſtout ſhips, and arrived at Darien in two months, with the loſs of only fifteen of their people. At that time it was in their power, moſt of whom were well born, and all of them hardily bred, and inured to the fatigues and dangers of the late war, to have gone from the northmoſt part of Mexico to the ſouthmoſt of Chili, and to have overturned the whole empire of Spain in the South ſeas: but modeſt, reſpecting their own and their country's character, and afraid of being accuſed that they had plunder, and not a ſettlement, in view, they began with purchaſing lands from the natives, and ſending meſſages of amity to the Spaniſh governors within their reach: and then fixed their ſtation at Acta, calling it New St. Andrew, from the name of the tutelar ſaint of Scotland, and the country itſelf New-Caledonia. One of the ſides of the harbour being formed by a long narrow neck of land which ran into the ſea, they cut it acroſs ſo as to join the ocean

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and the harbour. Within this defence they erected their fort, planting upon it fifty pieces of cannon. On the other ſide of the harbour there was a mountain a mile high, on which they placed a watch-houſe, which, in the rarefied air within the tropics, ſo favourable for viſion, gave them an immenſe range of proſpect to prevent all ſurpriſe. To this place, it was obſerved that the Highlanders often repaired, to enjoy a cool air, and to talk of their friends they had left behind in their hills; friends whoſe minds were as high as their mountains. The firſt public act of the colony was to publiſh a declaration of freedom of trade and religion to all nations. This luminous idea originated with Paterſon.

But the Dutch Eaſt-India company having preſſed the king, in concurrence with his Engliſh ſubjects, to prevent the ſettlement at Darien, orders had been ſent from England to the governors of the Weſt-Indian and American colonies, to iſſue proclamations againſt giving aſſiſtance, or even to hold correſpondence with the colony, and theſe were more or leſs harſhly expreſſed, according to the tempers of the different governors. The Scotch, truſting to far different treatment, and to the ſupplies which they expected from thoſe colonies, had not brought proviſions enough with them, they fell into diſeaſes from bad food and from want of food. But the more generous ſavages, by hunting and fiſhing for them, gave them that relief which fellow Britons refuſed. They lingered eight months, awaiting, but in vain, for aſſiſtance from Scotland, and almoſt all of them either died or quitted the ſettlement. Paterſon, who had been the firſt that entered the ſhip at Leith, was the laſt who went on board at Darien.

During the ſpace of two years, while the eſtabliſhment of this colony had been in agitation, Spain had made no complaint to England or Scotland againſt it: the Darien council even averred in their papers, which are in the Advocates Library, that the right of the company was debated before the king, in preſence of the Spaniſh ambaſſador, before the colony left Scotland. But now, on the 3d of May, 1698, the Spaniſh ambaſſador at London preſented a memorial to the king, which complained of the ſettlement at Darien as an encroachment on the rights of his maſter.

The Scotch, ignorant of the misfortunes of their colony, but provoked at this memorial, ſent out another colony ſoon after of thirteen hundred men, to ſupport an eſtabliſhment which was now no more. But this laſt expedition, having been more haſtily prepared than the

firſt,

firſt, was unlucky in its paſſage: one of the ſhips was loſt at ſea, many men died on ſhip-board, and the reſt arrived at different times, broken in their health and diſpirited, when they heard the fate of thoſe who had gone before them.—Added to the misfortunes of the firſt colony, the ſecond had a misfortune peculiar to itſelf: the general aſſembly of the church of Scotland ſent out four miniſters, with orders "to take charge of the ſouls of the colony, and to erect a preſbytery, with a moderator, clerk, and record of proceedings; to appoint ruling elders, deacons, overſeers of the manners of the people, and aſſiſtants in the exerciſe of church diſcipline and government, and to hold regular kirk ſeſſions." When they arrived, the officers and gentlemen were occupied in building houſes for themſelves with their own hands, becauſe there was no help to be got from others; yet the four miniſters complained grievouſly, that the council did not order houſes to be immediately built for their accommodation. They had not the precaution to bring with them letters of recommendation from the directors at home to the council abroad. On theſe accounts, not meeting with all the attention they expected from the higher, they paid court to the inferior ranks of the coloniſts, and by that means threw diviſions into the colony.

The laſt party that joined the ſecond colony at Darien, after it had been three months ſettled, was Captain Campbell of Finab, with a company of the people of his eſtate, whom he had commanded in Flanders, and whom he carried to Darien in his own ſhip. On their arrival at New St. Andrew, they found intelligence had been lately received, that a Spaniſh force of ſixteen hundred men, which had been brought from the coaſt of the South ſea, lay encamped at Tubucantee, waiting there till a Spaniſh ſquadron of eleven ſhips which was expected ſhould arrive, when they were jointly to attack the fort. The military command was offered to Captain Campbell, in compliment to his reputation and to his birth, who was deſcended from the families of Breadalbane and Athol. In order to prevent a joint attack, he reſolved to attack firſt; and therefore, on the ſecond day after his arrival, he marched with two hundred men to Tubucantee, before his arrival was known to the enemy, ſtormed the camp in the night-time, diſſipated the Spaniſh force with much ſlaughter, and returned to the fort the fifth day: but he found the Spaniſh ſhips before the harbour, their troops landed, and almoſt all hope of help or proviſion cut off; yet he ſtood a ſiege near ſix weeks, till almoſt all the officers were dead, the enemy

by

by their approaches had cut off his wells, and his balls were ſo far expended, that he was obliged to melt the pewter diſhes of the garriſon into balls. The garriſon then capitulated, and obtained not only the common honours of war and ſecurity for the property of the company, but, as if they had been conquerors, exacted hoſtages for performance of the conditions. Captain Campbell alone deſired to be excepted from the capitulation, ſaying, he was ſure the Spaniards could not forgive him the miſchief which he ſo lately had done them. The brave, by their courage, often eſcape that death which they ſeem to provoke: Captain Campbell made his eſcape in his veſſel, and, ſtopping no where, arrived ſafely at New-York, and from thence to Scotland, where the company preſented him with a gold medal, in which his virtue was commemorated, to inflame his family with the love of heroic actions.

A harder fate attended thoſe whom Captain Campbell left at Darien. They were ſo weak in their health as not to be able to weigh up the anchors of the Riſing Sun, one of their ſhips, which carried ſixty guns; but the generous Spaniards aſſiſted them. In going out of the harbour ſhe ran aground: the prey was tempting, and to obtain it, the Spaniards had only to ſtand by and look on; but ſhewed that mercy to the Scotch in diſtreſs, which one of the countrymen of thoſe Scotch, General Elliot, returned to the poſterity of the Spaniards at the end of the late conflagration at the ſiege of Gibraltar. The Darien ſhips being leaky and weakly manned, were obliged in their voyage to take ſhelter in different ports belonging to Spain and England. The Spaniards in the new world ſhewed them kindneſs; the Engliſh governments ſhewed them none; and in one place one of their ſhips was ſeized and detained. Of theſe only Captain Campbell's ſhip and another ſmall one were ſaved: the Royal Sun was loſt on the bar of Charleſton, and of the colony, not more than thirty, ſaved from war, ſhipwreck or diſeaſe, ever ſaw their country again.

Paterſon, who had ſtood the blow, could not ſtand the reflection of misfortune: he was ſeized with a lunacy in his paſſage home after the ruin of the firſt colony, but he recovered in his own country, where his ſpirit, ſtill ardent and unbroke, preſented a new plan to the company, founded on the idea of King William, that England ſhould have the joint dominion of the ſettlement with Scotland.

He ſurvived many years in Scotland, pitied, reſpected, but neglected. After the union of the two kingdoms, he claimed reparation

of his loſſes from the equivalent-money given by England to the Darien company, but got nothing, becauſe a grant to him from a public fund would have been only an act of humanity, not a political job.

Thus ended the colony of Darien. Men look into the works of poets for ſubjects of ſatire, but they are more often to be found in the records of hiſtory. The application of the Dutch to King William againſt the Darien company, affords the ſureſt of all proofs, that it was the intereſt of the Britiſh iſlands to ſupport it. England, by the imprudence of ruining that ſettlement, loſt the opportunity of gaining and continuing to herſelf the greateſt commercial empire that probably ever will be upon earth. Had ſhe treated with Scotland, in the hour of the diſtreſs of the company, for a joint poſſeſſion of the ſettlement, or adopted the union of the kingdoms, which the ſovereign of both propoſed to them, that poſſeſſion could certainly have been obtained. Had ſhe treated with Spain to relinquiſh an imaginary right, or at leaſt to give a paſſage acroſs the iſthmus, upon receiving duties ſo high as to overbalance all the chance of loſs by a contraband trade, ſhe had probably obtained either the one or the other. Had ſhe broke with Spain for the ſake of gaining by force one of thoſe favours, ſhe would have loſt far leſs than ſhe afterwards did by carrying a war into that country for many years, to force a king upon the Spaniards againſt their will. Even a rupture with Spain for Darien, if it had proved ſucceſsful, would have knit the two nations together by the moſt ſolid of ties, their mutual intereſt; for the Engliſh muſt then have depended upon Spain for the ſafety of their caravans by land, and the Spaniards upon England for the ſafety of their fleets by ſea. Spain and England would have been bound together as Portugal and England have long been; and the Spaniſh treaſures have ſailed, under the wings of Engliſh navies, from the Spaniſh main to Cadiz, in the ſame manner as the treaſures of Portugal have ſailed under the ſame protection, ſacred and untouched, from the Brazils to Liſbon.

Panama is the capital city of this province, where the treaſures of gold and ſilver, and the other rich merchandiſes of Peru, are lodged in magazines till they are ſent to Europe. It is ſituated weſt longitude 82° 15′, north latitude 8° 57′.

When Guzman firſt touched at this place in 1514, it conſiſted entirely of fiſhermen's huts. Orius d'Avila ſettled a colony here in a few years after, and in 1521 it was conſtituted a city by the emperor

Charles V. with the proper privileges. In 1670, it was ſacked and burnt by John Morgan, an Engliſh adventurer, who had the preceding year taken Porto Bello. This misfortune induced the inhabitants to remove the city to its preſent ſituation, diſtant about a league from the place where it ſtood before. For the greater ſecurity, the new city was incloſed by a free-ſtone wall, and the houſes were built of ſtone and brick. Since that time ſeveral baſtions have been added, and now there is always a complete garriſon maintained, and the walls are mounted with large cannon. But all theſe precautions could not ſave this city from another misfortune; it was entirely conſumed by fire in the year 1737. After this accident it was again rebuilt, in the manner as it now ſtands, with neat elegant houſes, but not magnificent. The inhabitants are rather independent in their fortunes than rich; there are few of them opulent, and ſcarce any in a ſtate of poverty. As to the harbour, it is convenient, and well ſecured againſt ſtorms by a number of ſurrounding iſlands, and is capable of containing the largeſt fleets. Here the royal audience is ſeated, at which the governor of Panama reſides; for which reaſon the city is commonly deemed the capital of the province.

This place, a little while after it was founded, became the capital of the kingdom of Terra Firma. Some hopes were at firſt entertained from the three provinces of Panama, Darien, and Veragua, which compoſed it, but this proſperity vaniſhed inſtantaneouſly. The ſavages of Darien recovered their independence, and the mines of the two other provinces were found to be neither ſufficiently abundant, nor of an alloy good enough to make it worth while to work them. Five or ſix ſmall boroughs, in which are ſeen ſome Europeans quite naked, and a very ſmall number of Indians who have come to reſide there, form the whole of this ſtate, which the Spaniards are not aſhamed of honouring with the great name of kingdom. It is in general barren and unwholeſome, and contributes nothing to trade but pearls.

The pearl fiſhery is carried on in the iſlands of the gulph. The greateſt part of the inhabitants employ ſuch of the negroes in it as are good ſwimmers. Theſe ſlaves plunge and re-plunge in the ſea in ſearch of pearls, till this exerciſe has exhauſted their ſtrength or their ſpirits.

Every negro is obliged to deliver a certain number of oyſters. Thoſe in which there are no pearls, or in which the pearl is not entirely formed, are not reckoned. What he is able to find beyond the

the ſtipulated obligation, is conſidered as his indiſputable property; he may ſell it to whom he pleaſes, but commonly he cedes it to his maſter at a moderate price.

Sea monſters, which abound more about the iſlands where pearls are found than on the neighbouring coaſts, render this fiſhing dangerous. Some of theſe devour the divers in an inſtant. The manta fiſh, which derives its name from its figure, ſurrounds them, rolls them under its body, and ſuffocates them. In order to defend themſelves againſt ſuch enemies, every diver is armed with a poignard; the moment he perceives any of theſe voracious fiſh, he attacks them with precaution, wounds them, and drives them away. Notwithſtanding this, there are always ſome fiſhermen deſtroyed, and a great number crippled.

The pearls of Panama are commonly of a very fine water. Some of them are even remarkable for their ſize and figure; theſe were formerly ſold in Europe. Since art has imitated them, and the paſſion for diamonds has entirely ſuperſeded, or prodigiouſly diminiſhed the uſed of them, they have found a new mart more advantageous than the firſt. They are carried to Peru, where they are in great eſtimation.

This branch of trade has, however, infinitely leſs contributed to give reputation to Panama, than the advantage which it hath long enjoyed of being the mart of all the productions of the countr. of the Incas that are deſtined for the old world. Theſe riches, which are brought hither by a ſmall fleet, were carried, ſome on mules, others by the river Chagre, to Porto Bello, that is ſituated on the northern coaſt of the iſthmus, which ſeparates the two ſeas.

CARTHAGENA.

Carthagena is one of the moſt conſiderable provinces in this territory, on account of the great trade carried on by the capital, for the country itſelf is neither fertile, rich, nor populous. The capital city, called likewiſe Carthagena, is ſituated in weſt longitude 77°, and north latitude 11′, on a ſandy iſland, by moſt writers called a peninſula; which forming a narrow paſſage on the ſouth-weſt, opens a communication with that called Tierra Bemba, as far as Bocco Chica. The little iſland which now joins them was formerly the entrance of the bay, but it having been filled up by orders of the court, Bocca Chica became the only entrance; this, however, has been filled up ſince the attempt of Vernon and Wentworth, and the old paſſage

again opened. On the north ſide the land is ſo narrow, that before the wall was begun, the diſtance from ſea to ſea was only thirty-five toiſes; but afterwards enlarging, it forms another iſland on this ſide, ſo that excepting theſe two places, the whole city is entirely ſurrounded by ſalt water. To the eaſtward it has a communication, by means of a wooden bridge, with a large ſuburb, called Xemani, built on another iſland, which is alſo joined to the continent by a bridge of the ſame materials. The fortifications both of the city and ſuburbs are built after the modern manner, and lined with free-ſtone; and in time of peace, the garriſon conſiſts of ten companies, of ſeventy-ſeven men each, beſides militia. The city and ſuburbs are well laid out, the ſtreets ſtrait, broad, uniform, and well paved. All the houſes are built of ſtone or brick, only one ſtory high, well contrived, neat, and furniſhed with balconies and lattices of wood, which is more durable in that climate than iron, the latter being ſoon corroded by the acrimonious quality of the atmoſphere. The climate is exceedingly unhealthy. The Europeans are particularly ſubject to the terrible diſeaſe called the black vomit, which ſweeps off multitudes annually on the arrival of the galleons. It ſeldom continues above three or four days, in which time the patient is either dead or out of danger, and if he recovers, is never ſubject to a return of the ſame diſtemper. This diſeaſe has hitherto foiled all the arts of the Spaniſh phyſicians, as has alſo the leproſy, which is very common here. At Carthagena, likewiſe, that painful tumour in the legs, occaſioned by the entrance of the dracunculus, or guinea-worm, is very common and troubleſome. Another diſorder, peculiar to this country and to Peru, is occaſioned by a little inſect called nigua, ſo extremely minute, as ſcarce to be viſible to the naked eye. This inſect breeds in the duſt, inſinuates itſelf into the ſoles of the feet and the legs, piercing the ſkin with ſuch ſubtlelty, that there is no being aware of it, before it has made its way to the fleſh. If it is perceived in the beginning, it is extracted with little pain; but having once lodged its head, and pierced the ſkin, the patient muſt undergo the pain of an inciſion, without which a nodus would be formed, and a multitude of inſects ingendered, which would ſoon overſpread the foot and leg. One ſpecies of the nigua is venomous, and when it enters the toe, an inflammatory ſwelling takes place in the groin.

St. MARTHA.

St. Martha is bounded on the north, by the North ſea; on the eaſt, by Rio de la Hache; on the ſouth, by New-Granada: and on the weſt, by Carthagena. It is three hundred miles in length, and two hundred in breadth, is a mountainous country, and the land very high. Here begins the famous ridge of mountains called the Cordilleras des los Andes, which run from north to ſouth the whole length of the continent of South-America; it is extremely hot on the ſea coaſt, but cold in the internal parts, on account of the mountains; it abounds with the fruits proper to the climate, and there are mines of gold and precious ſtones, as alſo ſalt-works. The Spaniards poſſeſs but one part of this province, in which they have built Martha the capital. The air about the town is wholeſome, and is ſeated near the ſea, having a harbour ſurrounded with high mountains. It was formerly very conſiderable when the galleons were ſent thither, but is now come almoſt to nothing. Weſt longitude 74° 11′, north latitude 11° 20′.

VENEZUELA.

The province contiguous to St. Martha on the eaſt was firſt viſited by Alonſo de Ojeda, in the year 1499; and the Spaniards, on their landing there, having obſerved ſome huts in an Indian village built upon piles, in order to raiſe them above the ſtagnated water which covered the plain, were led to beſtow upon it the name of Venezuela, or Little-Venice, by their uſual propenſity to find a reſemblance between what they diſcovered in America, and the objects which were familiar to them in Europe. They made ſome attempts to ſettle there, but with little ſucceſs. The final reduction of the province was accompliſhed by means very different from thoſe to which Spain was indebted for its other acquiſitions in the New World. The ambition of Charles V. often engaged him in operations of ſuch variety and extent, that his revenues were not ſufficient to defray the expenſe of carrrying them into execution. Among other expedients for ſupplying the deficiency of his funds, he had borrowed large ſums from the Velſers of Augſburgh, the moſt opulent merchants at that time in Europe. By way of retribution for theſe, or in hopes perhaps, of obtaining a new loan, he beſtowed upon them the province of Venezuela, to be held as an hereditary fief from the crown of

of Caſtile, on condition that within a limited time they ſhould render themſelves maſters of the country, and eſtabliſh a colony there. Under the direction of ſuch perſons, it might have been expected, that a ſettlement would have been eſtabliſhed on maxims very different from thoſe of the Spaniards, and better calculated to encourage ſuch uſeful induſtry, as mercantile proprietors might have known to be the moſt certain ſource of proſperity and opulence: but unfortunately they committed the execution of their plan to ſome of thoſe ſoldiers of fortune with which Germany abounded in the ſixteenth century. Theſe adventurers, impatient to amaſs riches, that they might ſpeedily abandon a ſtation which they ſoon diſcovered to be very uncomfortable, inſtead of planting a colony in order to cultivate and improve the country, wandered from diſtrict to diſtrict in ſearch of mines, plundering the natives with unfeeling rapacity, or oppreſſing them by the impoſition of intolerable taſks. In the courſe of a few years, their avarice and exactions, in compariſon with which thoſe of the Spaniards were moderate, deſolated the province ſo completely, that it could hardly afford them ſubſiſtence; and the Velſers relinquiſhed a property from which the inconſiderate conduct of their agents left them no hope of ever deriving any advantage.* When the wretched remainder of the Germans deſerted Venezuela, the Spaniards again took poſſeſſion of it; but, notwithſtanding many natural advantages, it is one of their moſt languiſhing and unproductive ſettlements.

PARIA AND COMANA.

Theſe provinces are bounded on the north by the North ſea, on the eaſt by Surinam, on the weſt by New-Granada, and on the ſouth by Guiana; its produce is various, but in relating the origin and operations of the mercantile company, in which an excluſive right of trade with them has been veſted, we ſhall hereafter have occaſion to conſider their ſtate and productions in a more ample manner.

NEW-GRANADA AND POPAYAN.

The provinces ſometimes known as the new kingdom of Granada, is entirely an inland country of great extent. This important addition was made to the dominions of Spain about the year 1536, by Sebaſtian de Benalcazar and Gonzalo Ximenes de Queſada, two of the braveſt and

* Civedo y Bagnos Hiſt. de Venezuela, p. 11, &c.

moſt

moſt accompliſhed officers employed in the conqueſt of America. The former, who commanded at that time in Quito, attacked it from the ſouth; the latter made his invaſion from Santa Martha on the north. As the original inhabitants of this region were farther advanced in improvement than any people in America but the Mexicans and Peruvians, they defended themſelves with great reſolution and good conduct. The abilites and perſeverance of Benalcazar and Queſada ſurmounted all oppoſition, though not without encountering many dangers, and reduced the country into the form of a Spaniſh province.

The provinces are ſo far elevated above the level of the ſea, that though they approach almoſt to the equator, the climate is remarkably temperate. The fertility of the vallies is not inferior to thoſe of the richeſt diſtricts in America, and the higher grounds yield gold and precious ſtones of various kinds. It is not by digging into the bowels of the earth that this gold is found, it is mingled with the ſoil near the ſurface, and ſeparated from it by repeated waſhing with water: this operation is carried on wholly by negro ſlaves; for though the chill ſubterranean air has been diſcovered, by experience, to be ſo fatal to them, that they cannot be employed with advantage in the deep ſilver mines, they are more capable of performing the other ſpecies of labour than Indians. As the natives are exempt from that ſervice, which has waſted their race ſo rapidly in other parts of America, the country is ſtill remarkably populous. Some diſtricts yield gold with a profuſion no leſs wonderful than in the vale of Cineguilla, and it is often found in large pepitas, or grains, which manifeſt the abundance in which it is produced. On a riſing ground near Pamplona, ſingle labourers have collected in a day what was equal in value to a thouſand peſos. A late governor of Santa Fé brought with him to Spain a lump of pure gold, eſtimated to be worth ſeven hundred and forty pounds ſterling. This, which is perhaps the largeſt and fineſt ſpecimen ever found in the new world, is now depoſited in the royal cabinet of Madrid. But without founding any calculation on what is rare and extraordinary, the value of the gold uſually collected in this country, particularly in Popayan and Choco, is of conſiderable amount. Its towns are populous and flouriſhing. The number of inhabitants in almoſt every part of the country daily increaſes; cultivation and induſtry of various kinds begin to be encouraged, and to proſper; a conſiderable trade is carried on with Carthagena, the produce of the mines and other com-

commodities being conveyed down the great river of St. Magdalen to that city. On another quarter there is a communication with the Atlantic by the river Orinoco; but the country which ſtretches along its banks towards the eaſt is little known, and imperfectly occupied by the Spaniards.

HISTORY OF

P E R U.

PERU is ſituated between the equator and 25° ſouth latitude, and 60° and 81′ weſt longitude;* its length is eighteen hundred miles, and its breadth, according to ſome authors, three hundred and ninety, and others ſix hundred † miles; but the lateſt and moſt authentic accounts ſtate it at about five hundred. It is bounded on the north by Terra Firma, on the weſt by the Pacific ocean, on the ſouth by Chili, and on the eaſt by the mountains called the Andes. The bounds of our work will not permit us to enter into the ancient hiſtory of this country before its conqueſt by the Spaniards; we can, therefore, only in brief obſerve, that the empire of Peru, at the time it was ſubdued, extended along the South ſea, from the river of Emeralds to Chili, and on the land ſide to Popayan, according to ſome geographers. It contained within its extent that famous chain of mountains which riſes in the Terra Magellanica, and is gradually loſt in Mexico, in order to unite, as it ſhould ſeem, the ſouthern parts of America with the northern.

It is now divided into three grand diviſions or audiences: 1. QUITO; 2. LIMA, or LOS REYES; and, 3. LOS CHARCOS. As to its climate, mines, ſoil and produce, they differ greatly in different parts of the country.

QUITO.

The extenſive province of Quito is bounded on the north by Popayan, and includes a part of that government; alſo by Santa Fé de

* The compilers of the Encyclopœdia Britannica ſtate the ſituation of Peru between 1 deg. 40 min. north, and 26 deg. 10 min. ſouth latitude, and 56 and 81 deg. weſt longitude, and make its length eighteen hundred and its breadth, as above, three hundred and ninety miles.

† Guthrie.

Bogota; on the ſouth by the governments of Piura and Chachapoyas; on the eaſt it extends over the whole government of Maynas and the river of the Amazons to the meridian, which divides the Spaniſh from the Portugueſe dominions; and on the weſt it is bounded by the South ſea; extending, according to Antonio de Ulloa, ſix hundred leagues in length, and about two hundred in its greateſt breadth; but this greatly exceeds the computation of all other geographers. He however obſerves, that it muſt be owned a great part of thoſe vaſt dominions are either inhabited by nations of Indians, or have not hitherto been ſufficiently peopled by the Spaniards, if indeed they had been thoroughly known; and that all the parts that can properly be ſaid to be peopled, and actually ſubject to the Spaniſh government, are thoſe intercepted by the two Cordilleras of the Andes, which, in compariſon to the extent of the country, may be termed a ſtreet or lane, fifteen leagues, or ſometimes more, from eaſt to weſt; to this muſt be added ſeveral detached governments, ſeparated by the very extenſive tracts inhabited by free Indians.

The climate of Quito differs from all others in the ſame parallel, ſince even in the center of the torrid zone, or although under the equinoctial, the heat is not only very tolerable, but even in ſome places the cold is painful; while others enjoy all the advantages of a perpetual ſpring, the fields being conſtantly covered with verdure, and enamelled with flowers of the moſt lively colours. The mildneſs of the climate, free from the extremes of heat and cold, and the conſtant equality of the day and night, render this country, which, from its ſituation, might be thought to be parched by the conſtant heat of the ſun, and ſcarcely inhabitable, both pleaſant and fertile; for Nature has here diſpenſed her bleſſings with ſo liberal a hand, that this country in ſeveral reſpects ſurpaſſes thoſe of the temperate zones, where the viciſſitudes of winter and ſummer, and the change from heat to cold, cauſe the extremes of both to be more ſenſibly felt. However, in different parts of the country, the air is very different; in one part are mountains of a ſtupendous height and magnitude, with their ſummits covered with ſnow. The plains are temperate, the valleys hot, and, according to the high or low ſituation of the country, are found all the variety of gradations in temperature poſſible to be conceived between the extremes of heat and cold.

Quito, the capital, in 0° 13′ ſouth latitude, and 77° 50′ weſt longitude from Greenwich, is ſo happily ſituated, that neither heat nor cold

cold are troubleſome, though both may be felt in its neighbourhood; and what renders this equality more delightful is, that it is conſtant throughout the whole year, the difference between the ſeaſons being ſcarce perceptible. Indeed the mornings are cool, the remainder of the day warm, and the nights of an agreeable temperature.

The winds, which are pure and ſalubrious, blow for the moſt part from north to ſouth, but never with any violence, though they ſometimes ſhift their quarters, but without any regard to the ſeaſon of the year. Such ſignal advantages reſulting from the climate, ſoil, and aſpect of this country, would be ſufficient to render it the moſt enviable ſpot upon earth, as it is ſuppoſed to be the moſt elevated, if, whilſt enjoying theſe delights, the inhabitants were not haraſſed by terror, and expoſed to continual danger; for here tremendous tempeſts of thunder and lightning prevail, which are ſufficient to appal the ſtouteſt heart; whilſt earthquakes frequently ſpread univerſal apprehenſions, and ſometimes bury cities in ruins.

The diſtinction of winter and ſummer conſiſts in a very minute difference; the interval between the month of September and thoſe of April, May or June, is here called the winter ſeaſon, and the other months compoſe the ſummer. In the former ſeaſon the rain chiefly prevails, and in the latter the inhabitants frequently enjoy whole days of fine weather; but whenever the rains are diſcontinued for above a fortnight, the inhabitants are in the utmoſt conſternation, and public prayers are offered up for their return. On the other hand, when they continue a ſhort time without intermiſſion, the like fears prevail, and the churches are again crowded with ſupplicants to obtain fine weather; for a long drought produces dangerous diſeaſes, and a continual rain, without intervals of ſunſhine, deſtroys the fruits of the earth. The city of Quito, however, enjoys one peculiar advantage in being free from muſketoes and other troubleſome inſects, ſuch as fleas and venomous reptiles, except the nigua or pique, which is a very ſmall inſect ſhaped like a flea, but hardly viſible to the ſight.

The fertility of the ſoil here is incredible, for the fruits and beauties of the ſeveral ſeaſons are viſible at the ſame time; and the curious European obſerves with a pleaſing admiration, that while ſome herbs of the field are fading, others of the ſame kind are ſpringing up; while ſome flowers loſe their beauty, others blow to continue the enamelled proſpect: thus, when the fruits of the trees

have attained their maturity, and the leaves begin to change their colour, freſh leaves bloſſom, and fruits are ſeen in their proper gradation, in ſize and ripeneſs on the ſame tree. The ſame inceſſant fertility is conſpicuous in the corn, both reaping and ſowing being carried on at the ſame time; ſo that the declivities of the neighbouring hills exhibit all the beauties of the four ſeaſons in one aſſemblage. Though all this is generally ſeen, yet there is a ſettled time for the grand harveſt: yet ſometimes the moſt favourable ſeaſon for ſowing in one place is a month or two after that of another, though their diſtance does not exceed three or four leagues. Thus in different ſpots, and ſometimes in one and the ſame, ſowing and reaping are performed throughout the whole year, the forwardneſs or retardment naturally ariſing from the different ſituations, ſuch as mountains, riſing grounds, plains and valleys; and the temperature being different in each, the beſt times for performing the ſeveral operations of huſbandry muſt alſo differ.

The chirimoya is conſidered as one of the moſt delicious fruits in the world; its dimenſions are various, being from one to five inches in diameter; its figure is imperfectly round, flatted towards the ſtalk, where it forms a kind of navel, but all the other parts are nearly circular: it is covered with a thin ſoft ſhell, which adheres ſo cloſely to the pulp as not to be ſeparated from it without a knife; the outward coat is green, variegated with prominent veins, forming all over it a kind of net-work: the pulp is white, and contains a large quantity of juice reſembling honey, of a ſweet taſte, mixed with a gentle acid of a moſt exquiſite flavour. The ſeeds are formed in ſeveral parts of the pulp, and are ſomewhat flat. The tree is high and tufted, the ſtem large and round, but with ſome inequalities, full of elliptic leaves, terminating in a point. The bloſſom differs little from the colour of the leaves, which is a darkiſh green; and though far from being beautiful, is remarkable for its incomparable fragrance.

The granadilla in its ſhape reſembles an hen's egg, but is larger; the outſide of the ſhell is ſmooth, gloſſy, and of a faint carnation colour, and the inſide white and ſoft; the ſhell contains a viſcous liquid ſubſtance full of very ſmall and delicate grains, leſs hard than thoſe of the pomegranate. This medullary ſubſtance is ſeparated from the ſhell by a fine and tranſparent membrane. Its fruit has a delightful ſweetneſs blended with acidity, very cordial and refreſhing, and ſo wholeſome, that there is no danger of eating to exceſs.

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The frutilla, or Peruvian ſtrawberry, is very different from that of Europe in ſize; for though they are here generally not above an inch in length, they are much larger in other parts of Peru; but their taſte, though juicy, and not unpalatable, is not equal to thoſe in Europe.

The country is obſerved to abound more in women than men, which is the more remarkable, as thoſe cauſes which induce men to leave their country, as travelling, commerce, and war, naturally bring over more men from Europe than women. But there are many families in which there are a number of daughters, without one ſon among them. The women enjoy a better ſtate of health than the men, which may be owing in ſome meaſure to the climate, but more particularly to the early intemperance and voluptuouſneſs of the other ſex.

The Creoles are well made, of a proper ſtature, and of a lively and agreeable countenance. The Meſtizos are alſo in general well made, often taller than the ordinary ſize, very robuſt, and have an agreeable air. The Indians, both men and women, are commonly low of ſtature, though ſtrong and well proportioned; but more natural defects are to be found among them than in any of the reſt. Some are remarkably ſhort, ſome ideots, dumb, or blind. Their hair is generally thick and long, which they wear looſe on their ſhoulders; but the Indian women plait theirs behind with a riband, and cut that before a little above the eyebrows, from one ear to the other. The greateſt diſgrace that can be offered to an Indian of either ſex is to cut off their hair; for whatever corporal puniſhment their maſters think proper to inflict on them, they bear with patience; but this affront they never forgive, and accordingly the government has interpoſed, and limited this puniſhment to the moſt enormous crimes. The colour of the hair is generally a deep black; it is lank, harſh, and as coarſe as that of a horſe. On the contrary, the male Meſtizos, in order to diſtinguiſh themſelves from the Indians, cut off their hair, but the females do not adopt that cuſtom.

The Meſtizos in general wear a blue cloth, manufactured in this country; but though they are the loweſt claſs of the Spaniards, they are very ambitious of diſtinguiſhing themſelves as ſuch, either by the colour or faſhion of the clothes they wear.

The Meſtizo women affect to dreſs in the ſame manner as the Spaniſh, though they cannot equal the ladies in the richneſs of their ſtuffs. The meaner ſort wear no ſhoes, but, like the men of the ſam rank, go barefooted.

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The dreſs of the Indians conſiſts of white cotton drawers, which hang down to the calf of their leg, where they are looſe, and edged with a lace ſuitable to the ſtuff. The uſe of a ſhirt is ſupplied by a black cotton frock, made in the form of a ſack, with three openings at the bottom, one in the middle for the head, and others at the corners for the arms; thus covering their naked bodies down to their knees: over this is a ſerge cloak, with a hole in the middle for putting the head through, and a hat made by the natives. This is the general dreſs, which they never lay aſide, even while they ſleep; and they have no additional cloathing for their legs or feet. The Indians, who have acquired ſome fortune, particularly the barbers and phlebotomiſts, diſtinguiſh themſelves from their countrymen by the fineneſs of their drawers, and by wearing a ſhirt, which, though without ſleeves, has a lace four or five fingers in breadth, faſtened round like a kind of ruff or band. They are fond of ſilver or gold buckles to their ſhoes, though they wear no ſtockings, and inſtead of a mean ſerge cloak, wear one of fine cloth, which is often adorned with gold or ſilver lace.

There are two kinds of dreſſes worn by the Indian women, made in the ſame plain manner with thoſe worn by the men in general, the whole conſiſting of a ſhort petticoat and a veil of American baize. But the dreſs of the loweſt claſs of Indian women is only a bag of the ſame make and ſtuff as that of the men, which they faſten on their ſhoulders with two large pins; it reaches down to the calf of the leg, and is faſtened round the waiſt with a kind of girdle. Inſtead of a veil, they wear about the neck a piece of the ſame coarſe ſtuff, dyed black, but their arms and legs are naked.

The people have diſhes unknown in Europe, but are particularly fond of cheeſe, and have excellent butter in the neighbourhood of Quito. Sweetmeats are very much admired.

Rum is commonly drank here by perſons of all ranks, but their favourite liquor is brandy. The diſorders ariſing from the exceſſive uſe of ſpirituous liquors are chiefly ſeen among the Meſtizos; and the lower claſs of women, both among the Creoles and the Meſtizos, are alſo extremely addicted to the ſame ſpecies of debauchery.

Another liquor much uſed in this country is mate, which is made of an herb known in all theſe parts of America by the name paraguay, as being the produce of that country. Some of it is put into a calabaſh tipped with ſilver, called here mate, with ſugar and ſome cold

cold water. After it has continued there ſome time, the calabaſh is filled with boiling water, and they drink the liquor through a pipe fixed in the calabaſh. It is alſo uſual to ſqueeze into the liquor a ſmall quantity of the juice of lemons or Seville oranges, mixed with ſome perfumes from odoriferous flowers. This is their uſual drink in the morning faſting, and many alſo uſe it at their evening regale. The manner of drinking it appears very indelicate, the whole company taking it ſucceſſively through the ſame pipe, it being carried ſeveral times round the company till all are ſatisfied. This, among the Creoles, is the higheſt enjoyment; ſo that when they travel, they never fail to carry with them a ſufficient quantity of it, and till they have taken their doſe of mate they never eat.

The vice of gaming is here carried to an extravagant height, to the ruin of many families, ſome loſing their ſtock in trade, others the very clothes from their backs, and afterward thoſe belonging to their wives, which they hazard, ſtimulated by the hope of recovering their own.

The common people, the Indians, and even the domeſtics, are greatly addicted to ſtealing. The Meſtizos, though arrant cowards, do not want audacity in this way; for though they will not venture to attack any one in the ſtreet, it is a common practice to ſnatch off a perſon's hat, and immediately ſeek their ſafety in flight. This acquiſition is ſometimes of conſiderable value; the hats worn by perſons of rank, and even by the wealthy citizens, when dreſſed, being of white beaver, worth fifteen dollars, beſide the hatband of gold or ſilver lace, faſtened with a gold buckle ſet with diamonds or emeralds.

In Quito, and all the towns and villages of its province, different dialects are ſpoken, Spaniſh being no leſs common than the Inga, the language of the country. The Creoles uſe the latter as much as the former, but both are conſiderably adulterated by borrowed words or expreſſions. The firſt language generally ſpoken by children is the Inga, for the nurſes being Indians, many of them do not underſtand a word of Spaniſh, and thus they afterward learn a jargon compoſed of both languages.

The ſumptuous manner of performing the laſt offices for the dead, demonſtrates how far the power of habit is capable of prevailing over reaſon and prudence, for their oſtentation is ſo great in this particular, that many families of credit are ruined by prepoſterouſly endeavouring to excel others; and the people here may be ſaid to toil

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and ſcheme to lay up wealth, to enable their ſucceſſors to laviſh honours upon a body inſenſible of all pageantry.

The commerce of the province of Quito is chiefly carried on by Europeans ſettled here, and others who occaſionally arrive. The manufactures of this province are only cottons, ſome white and ſtriped baize, and cloths, which meet with a good market at Lima, for ſupplying the inward provinces of Peru. The returns are made partly in ſilver, and partly in fringes made of gold and ſilver thread, and wine, brandy, oil, copper, tin, lead, and quickſilver. On the arrival of the galleons at Carthagena, theſe traders reſort thither to purchaſe European goods, which, at their return, they conſign to their correſpondents all over the province. The coaſts of New-Spain ſupply this province with indigo, of which there is a very large conſumption at the manufactures, blue being univerſally the colour which this people adopt for their apparel. They alſo import, by way of Guayaquila, iron and ſteel, both from Europe and the coaſt of Guatimala.

The diſpoſition of the Indians in the province of Quito is extremely remarkable, and they appear to have no reſemblance to the people found there by thoſe who firſt diſcovered the country. They at preſent poſſeſs a tranquillity not to be diſturbed either by fortunate or unfortunate events. In their mean apparel they are as contented as a prince clothed in the moſt ſplendid robes. They ſhew the ſame diſregard to riches; and even the authority and grandeur within their reach is ſo little the object of their ambition, that to all appearance it ſeems to be the ſame to an Indian whether he be created an alcaide, or obliged to perform the office of a common executioner.

Their ſloth is ſo great, that ſcarcely any thing can induce them to work. Whatever, therefore, is neceſſary to be done, is left to the Indian women, who are much more active; they ſpin and make the half ſhirts and drawers which form the only apparel of their huſbands; they cook the proviſions, grind barley, and brew the beer called chica, while the huſband ſits ſquatting on his hams, the uſual poſture of the Indians, looking at his buſy wife. The only domeſtic ſervice they do is to plough their little ſpot of land, which is ſowed by the wife. When they are once ſeated on their hams, no reward can induce them to ſtir; ſo that if a traveller has loſt his way, and happens to come to one of their cottages, they charge their wives to ſay that they are not at home. Should the paſſenger alight and enter

the cottage, the Indian would ſtill be ſafe, for having no light but what comes through a hole in the door, he could not be diſcovered; and ſhould the ſtranger even ſee the Indian, neither entreaties nor rewards would prevail on him to ſtir a ſtep with him.

They are lively only in parties of pleaſure, rejoicings, entertainments, and eſpecially dancing; but in all theſe the liquor muſt circulate briſkly, and they continue drinking till they are entirely deprived both of ſenſe and motion.

It is remarkable that the Indian women, whether maids or married, and Indian young men before they are of an age to contract matrimony, are never guilty of this vice; it being a maxim among them, that drunkenneſs is the privilege of none but maſters of families who, when they are unable to take care of themſelves, have others to take care of them.

The women preſent the chicha * to their huſbands in calabaſhes, till their ſpirits are raiſed, then one plays on a pipe and tabor, while others dance. Some of the beſt voices among the Indian women ſing ſongs in their own language, and thoſe who do not dance, ſquat down in the uſual poſture till it comes to their turn. When tired with intemperance, they all lie down together, without regarding whether they be near the wife of another or their own ſiſter or daughter. Theſe feſtivities ſometimes continue three or four days, till the prieſt coming among them, throws away all the chicha, and diſperſes the Indians, leſt they ſhould procure more.

Their funerals are likewiſe ſolemniſed with exceſſive drinking. The houſe is filled with jugs of chicha, for the ſolace of the mourners and other viſitors; the latter even go out into the ſtreets, and invite all of their nation who happen to paſs by, to come in and drink to the honour of the deceaſed. This ceremony laſts four or five days, and ſometimes more, ſtrong liquor being their ſupreme enjoyment.

The Indians in the audience of Quito are ſaid to act contrary to all other nations in their marriages, for they never make choice of a woman who has not been firſt enjoyed by others, which they conſi-

* This is a liquor made from maize by the following proceſs: The maize, after being ſoaked in water till it begin to grow, is dried in the ſun, then parched a little, and at laſt ground. The flour, after it has been well kneaded, is put with water into a large veſſel, and left for two or three days to ferment. Its taſte is nearly that of the moſt indifferent kind of cyder. It is a refreſhing, nouriſhing, and aperitive liquor, but it will not keep above eight days without turning ſour.

der as a certain indication of her perſonal attractions. After a young man has made choice of a woman, he aſks her of her father, and having obtained his conſent, they begin to cohabit together as man and wife, and aſſiſt the father-in-law in cultivating the land. At the end of three or four months, and frequently of a year, the huſband leaves his bride or wife, without any ceremony, and perhaps expoſtulates with his father-in-law for endeavouring to deceive him, by impoſing upon him his daughter, whom nobody elſe had thought worthy of making a bedfellow. But if no diſguſt ariſes in the man on this account, or any other, after paſſing three or four months in this commerce, which they call amanarſe, or to habituate one's ſelf, they then marry. This cuſtom is ſtill very common, though the whole body of the clergy have uſed all their endeavours to put a ſtop to it. Accordingly they always abſolve them of that ſin before they give them the nuptial benediction.

It has been obſerved, that the dependencies of the juriſdictions of Quito are ſeated between the two Cordilleras of the Andes, and that the air is more or leſs cold, and the ground more or leſs ſterile, according to the height of the mountains. Theſe barren tracks are called deſarts; for though all the Cordilleras are dry, ſome are much more ſo than others, and the continual ſnow and froſts render ſome parts of them incapable of producing a ſingle plant, and conſequently they are uninhabitable by man or beaſt.

Some of theſe mountains, which appear to have their baſes reſting on other mountains, riſe to a moſt aſtoniſhing height, and reaching far above the clouds, are here, although in the midſt of the torrid zone, covered with perpetual ſnow. From experiments made with a barometer on the mountain of Cotopaxi, it appeared that its ſummit was elevated ſix thouſand two hundred and fifty-two yards above the ſurface of the ſea, ſomething above three geographical miles, which greatly exceeds the height of any other mountains in the known world.

Cotopaxi became a volcano about the time when the Spaniards firſt arrived in this country. A new eruption happened in 1743, which had been for ſome days preceded by a continual interior rumbling noiſe; after which an aperture was made in its ſummit, as alſo three others near the middle of its declivity; theſe parts, when the eruption commenced, were buried under prodigious maſſes of ſnow. The ignited ſubſtances which were ejected, being mingled with a conſiderable quantity of ſnow and ice, melting amidſt the flames,

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were carried down with ſuch amazing rapidity, that the plain from Callo to Latacunga was overflowed, and all the houſes, with their wretched inhabitants, were ſwept away in one general and inſtantaneous deſtruction. The river of Latacunga was the receptacle of this dreadful flood, till becoming ſwollen above its banks, the torrent rolled over the adjacent country, continuing to ſweep away houſes and cattle, and rendered the land near the town of the ſame name as the river, one vaſt lake. Here, however, the inhabitants had ſufficient warning to ſave their lives by flight, and retreated to a more elevated ſpot at ſome diſtance. During three days the volcano ejected cinders, while torrents of lava with melted ice and ſnow poured down the ſides of the mountain. The eruption continued for ſeveral days longer, accompanied with terrible roarings of the wind, ruſhing through the craters which had been opened. At length all was quiet, and neither ſmoke nor fire were to be ſeen; until in May, 1744, the flames forced a paſſage through ſeveral other parts on the ſides of the mountain; ſo that in clear nights the flame, being reflected by the tranſparent ice, exhibited a very grand and beautiful illumination. On the 13th of November following, it ejected ſuch prodigious quantities of fire and lava, that an inundation, equal to the former, ſoon enſued, and the inhabitants of the town of Latacunga for ſome time gave themſelves over for loſt.

The moſt ſouthern mountains of the Cordilleras is that of Mecas or Sangay, which is of a prodigious height, and the far greateſt part of it covered with ſnow; yet from its ſummit iſſues a continual fire, attended with exploſions which are plainly heard at forty leagues diſtance. The country adjacent to this volcano is entirely barren, being covered with cinders ejected from its mouth. In this mountain riſes the river Sangay, which being joined by the Upano, forms the Payra, a large river which diſcharges itſelf into the Maranon.

Pichincha, though famous for its great height, is one thouſand two hundred and ſeventy-eight yards lower than the perpendicular height of Cotopaxi, and was formerly a volcano, but the mouth or crater on one of its ſides is now covered with ſand and calcined matter, ſo that at preſent neither ſmoke nor fire iſſues from it. When Don George Juan and Don Antonio de Ulloa were ſtationed on it for the purpoſe of making aſtronomical obſervations, they found the cold on the top of this mountain extremely intenſe, the wind violent, and they were frequently involved in ſo thick a fog, or, in other words, a cloud, that

an object at six or eight paces distance was scarcely discernible. The air grew clear by the clouds moving nearer to the earth, and on all sides surrounding the mountain to a vast distance, representing the sea with the mountain standing like an island in the center. When this happened, they heard the dreadful noise of the tempests that discharged themselves on Quito and the neighbouring country. They saw the lightning issue from the clouds, and heard the thunder roll far beneath them. While the lower parts were involved in tempests of thunder and rain, they enjoyed a delightful serenity; the wind was abated, the sky clear, and the enlivening rays of the sun moderated the severity of the cold. But when the clouds rose, their thickness rendered respiration difficult; snow and hail fell continually, and the wind returned with all its violence, so that it was impossible entirely to overcome the fear of being, together with their hut, blown down the precipice on whose edge it was built, or of being buried in it by the constant accumulations of ice and snow. Their fears were likewise increased by the fall of enormous fragments of rocks. Though the smallest crevice visible in their hut was stopped, the wind was so piercing that it penetrated through; and though the hut was small, crowded with inhabitants, and had several lamps constantly burning, the cold was so great, that each individual was obliged to have a chafing-dish of coals, and several men were constantly employed every morning to remove the snow which fell in the night. By the severities of such a climate their feet were swelled, and so tender, that walking was attended with extreme pain, their hands covered with chilblains, and their lips so swelled and chopt, that every motion in speaking drew blood.

LIMA, OR LOS REYES.

The next division of Peru is the audience of Lima, which is bounded on the north by Quito; on the east, by the Cordilleras of the Andes; on the south, by the audience of Los Charcos; and on the west, by the Pacific ocean; it being about seven hundred and seventy miles in length from north to south, but of an unequal breadth.

The climate and soil of this country is uncommonly various; in some places it is exceedingly hot, in others insupportably cold, and in the city of Lima, where rain never falls, it is always temperate. The seasons vary within the compass of a few miles, and in certain

parts

parts of the audience, all the viciſſitudes of weather are experienced in twenty-four hours. It is extremely remarkable that no rains fall, or rivers flow on the ſea coaſts, though the country is refreſhed by thick fogs, and the heat abated by denſe clouds that never condenſe into ſhowers. This phenomenon has drawn the attention of many naturaliſts, without their being able ſatisfactorily to account for it.

Spring begins towards the cloſe of the year, that is, about the end of November or the beginning of December, when the vapours which fill the atmoſphere during the winter ſubſide, and the ſun, to the great joy of the inhabitants, again appears, and the country then begins to revive, which, during the abſence of his rays, had continued in a ſtate of languor. This is ſucceeded by ſummer, which, though hot from the perpendicular direction of the ſun's rays, is far from being inſupportable; the heat, which, indeed, would otherwiſe be exceſſive, being moderated by the ſouth winds, which always blow at this ſeaſon, though with no great force. Winter begins at the latter end of June or the beginning of July, and continues till November or December, when the ſouth wind begins to blow ſtronger, and to produce a certain degree of cold, not, indeed, equal to that in the countries where the ice and ſnow are known, but ſo keen that the light dreſſes are laid by, and cloth or other warm ſtuffs worn. During the winter the earth is covered with ſo thick a fog, as totally to intercept the rays of the ſun; and the winds, by blowing under the ſhelter of the fog, retain the particles they contracted in the frozen zone. In this ſeaſon only the vapours diſſolve into a very ſmall dew, which every where equally moiſtens the earth; by which means all the hills, which during the other parts of the year offer nothing to the ſight but rocks and waſtes, are clothed with verdure and enamelled with flowers of the moſt beautiful colours. Theſe dews never fall in ſuch quantities as to impair the roads or incommode the traveller; a very thin ſtuff will not ſoon be wet through, but the continuance of the miſts during the whole winter, without being exhaled by the ſun, fertilizes every part of the country.

Lima is as free from tempeſts as from rain, ſo that thoſe of the inhabitants who have neither viſited the mountains nor travelled into other parts, are abſolute ſtrangers to thunder and lightning, and are therefore extremely terrified when they firſt hear the former, or ſee the latter. But it is very remarkable, that what is here entirely unknown, ſhould be ſo common thirty leagues to the eaſt of Lima; it being no

farther to the mountains, where violent rains and tempeſts of thunder and lightning are as frequent as at Quito.

But though the capital is freed from the terror of theſe tempeſts, it is ſubject to what is much more dreadful. Earthquakes happen here ſo frequently, that the inhabitants are under continual apprehenſions of being, from their ſuddenneſs and violence, buried in the ruins of their own houſes; yet theſe earthquakes, though ſo ſudden, have their preſages, one of the principal of which is a rumbling noiſe in the bowels of the earth, about a minute before the ſhocks are felt, that ſeems to pervade all the adjacent ſubterraneous part; this is followed by diſmal howlings of the dogs, who ſeem to preſage the approaching danger. The beaſts of burden paſſing the ſtreets ſtop, and by a natural inſtinct ſpread open their legs, the better to ſecure themſelves from falling. On theſe portents the terrified inhabitants fly from their houſes into the ſtreets with ſuch precipitation, that if it happens in the night, they appear quite naked; the urgency of the danger at once baniſhing all ſenſe of delicacy or ſhame. Thus the ſtreets exhibit ſuch odd and ſingular figures as might afford matter of diverſion, were it poſſible to be diverted in ſo terrible a moment. This ſudden concourſe is accompanied with the cries of children waked out of their ſleep, blended with the lamentations of the women, whoſe agoniſing prayers to the ſaints increaſe the common fear and confuſion. The men are alſo too much affected to refrain from giving vent to their terror, ſo that the whole city exhibits a dreadful ſcene of conſternation and horror.

The earthquakes that have happened at the capital are very numerous. The firſt ſince the eſtabliſhment of the Spaniards was in 1582, but the damage was much leſs conſiderable than in ſome of the ſucceeding. Six years after, Lima was again viſited by another earthquake, ſo dreadful, that it is ſtill ſolemnly commemorated every year. In 1609 another happened, which overturned many houſes. On the 27th of November, 1630, ſuch prodigious damage was done in the city by an earthquake, that in acknowledgment of its not having been entirely demoliſhed, a feſtival on that day is annually celebrated. Twenty-four years after, on the 3d of November, the moſt ſtately edifices in the city, and a great number of houſes, were deſtroyed by an earthquake, but the inhabitants retiring, few of them periſhed. Another dreadful one happened in 1678; but one of the moſt terrible was on the 28th of October, 1687. It began at four in the morning, and deſtro ed many of the fineſt public buildings and

houſes,

houſes, in which a great number of the inhabitants periſhed; but this was little more than a prelude to what followed, for two hours after the ſhock returned with ſuch impetuous concuſſions, that all was laid in ruins, and the inhabitants felt themſelves happy in being only ſpectators of the general devaſtation, by having ſaved their lives, though with the loſs of all their property. During this ſecond ſhock, the ſea retiring conſiderably, and then returning in mountainous waves, entirely overwhelmed Callao, which is at five miles diſtance from Lima, and all the adjacent country, together with the miſerable inhabitants. From that time, ſix earthquakes have happened at Lima previous to that of 1746. This laſt was on the 28th of October, at half an hour after ten at night, when the concuſſions began with ſuch violence, that in little more than three minutes, the greateſt part, if not all the buildings in the city, were deſtroyed, burying under their ruins thoſe inhabitants who had not made ſufficient haſte into the ſtreets and ſquares, the only places of ſafety. At length the horrible effects of the firſt ſhock ceaſed, but the tranquillity was of ſhort duration, the concuſſions ſwiftly ſucceeding each other. The fort of Callao alſo ſunk into ruins; but what it ſuffered from the earthquake in its building was inconſiderable, when compared to the dreadful cataſtrophe which followed; for the ſea, as is uſual on ſuch occaſions, receding to a conſiderable diſtance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, and ſuddenly buried Callao and the neighbouring country in its flood. This, however, was not entirely effected by the firſt ſwell of the waves, for the ſea retiring farther, returned with ſtill greater impetuoſity, and covered both the walls and other buildings of the place; ſo that what even had eſcaped the firſt inundation, was totally overwhelmed by thoſe ſucceeding mountainous waves. Twenty-three ſhips and veſſels, great and ſmall, were then in the harbour, nineteen of which were ſunk, and the other four, among which was a frigate named St. Fermin, were carried by the force of the waves to a conſiderable diſtance up the country. This terrible inundation and earthquake extended to other parts on the coaſt, and ſeveral towns underwent the ſame fate as the city of Lima, where the number of perſons who periſhed within two days after it began, amounted, according to the bodies found, to one thouſand three hundred, beſides the maimed and wounded, many of whom lived only a ſhort time in great torture.

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The country of Lima enjoys great fertility, producing all kinds of grain, and a prodigious variety of fruit. Here induſtry and art ſupply that moiſture which the clouds withhold. The ancient Incas of Peru cauſed ſmall canals to be formed, in order to conduct the waters of the rivers to every part of the country. The Spaniards, finding theſe uſeful works executed to their hands, had only to keep them in order, and by theſe are watered ſpacious fields of barley, large meadows, plantations, vineyards and gardens, all yielding uncommon plenty. Lima differs from Quito, where the fruits of the earth have no determined ſeaſon, for here the harveſt is gathered in, and the trees drop their leaves in the proper ſeaſon.

Although the ſummer here is hot, yet venomous creatures are unknown; and the ſame may be ſaid of the territory called Valles, though here are ſome ports, as Tumbez and Piura, where the heat is almoſt as great as that of Guayaquil. This ſingularity can therefore proceed from no other cauſe than the natural drought of the climate.

The audience of Lima is divided into four biſhoprics, Truxillo, Guamanga, Cuſco and Arequipa. The dioceſe of Truxillo lies to the north of the archiepiſcopal dioceſe of Lima, and like all the others is divided into ſeveral juriſdictions. The city of Truxillo is ſeated in 8° 6′ ſouth latitude, in a pleaſant ſituation, though in a ſandy ſoil.

In the dioceſe of Guamanga is a rich quickſilver mine, from which the inhabitants of a neighbouring town procure their whole ſubſiſtence; the coldneſs of the air in that place checking the growth of all kinds of grain and fruit, ſo that they are obliged to purchaſe them from their neighbours. The quickſilver mines wrought here ſupply all the ſilver mines in Peru with that neceſſary mineral, and notwithſtanding the prodigious quantities already extracted, no diminution is perceived.

Cuſco, which gives name to another dioceſe, is the moſt ancient city in Peru, being of the ſame date with the empire of the Incas, and was founded by them as the capital of the empire. On the mountain contiguous to the north part of the city are the ruins of a famous fort built by the Incas, whence it appears, that their deſign was to incloſe the whole mountain with a prodigious wall, of ſuch conſtruction as to render its aſcent abſolutely impracticable to an enemy, in order to prevent all approach to the city. This wall was entirely of freeſtone, and ſtrongly built, ſome of the ſtones being of a prodigious

digious magnitude. The city of Cuſco is nearly equal to that of Lima.

In this biſhopric are ſeveral mines of gold and ſilver that are extremely rich.

The fourth dioceſe of the audience of Lima is Arequipa, which contains the city of the ſame name, one of the largeſt in all Peru: it is delightfully ſeated in a plain, the houſes are well-built of ſtone, and are generally lofty, commodious, finely decorated on the outſide, and neatly furniſhed within. The temperature of the air is extremely agreeable, the cold being never exceſſive, nor the heat troubleſome, ſo that the fields are always clothed with verdure, and enamelled with flowers, as in a perpetual ſpring. But theſe advantages are allayed by its being frequently expoſed to dreadful earthquakes, for by theſe convulſions of Nature it has been four times laid in ruins. The city is, however, very populous, and among its inhabitants are many noble families.

In this biſhopric are ſeveral gold and ſilver mines, and in ſome parts are large vineyards, from which conſiderable quantities of wine and brandy are made. Among the other productions is Guinea pepper, in which the juriſdiction of Africa in this dioceſe carries on a very advantageous trade, the annual produce of theſe plantations bringing in no leſs than ſixty thouſand dollars per annum. The pods of this pepper are about a quarter of a yard in length, and when gathered are dried in the ſun and packed up in bags of ruſhes, each bag containing an aroba or a quarter of a hundred weight, and thus they are exported to all parts. Other places of this juriſdiction are famous for vaſt quantities of large and excellent olives, far exceeding the fineſt produced in Europe, they being nearly the ſize of a hen's egg.

LOS CHARCOS.

The audience of Charcos, the laſt diviſion of Peru, is equal in extent to that of Lima, but many of its parts are not ſo well inhabited, ſome being full of vaſt deſerts and impenetrable foreſts, while others have extenſive plains intercepted by the ſtupendous height of the Cordilleras: the country is inhabited only in ſuch parts as are free from thoſe inconveniences. It is bounded on the north by the dioceſe of Cuſco, and reaches ſouthward to Buenos Ayres; on the eaſt it extends to Braſil; and on the weſt it reaches to the Pacific ocean, particularly at Atacama. The remainder of the province borders on the kingdom of Chili.

This audience is divided into the archbiſhopric of Plata and five biſhoprics. We ſhall begin with the former.

The famous mountain of Potoſi is known all over the commercial world for the immenſe quantity of ſilver it has produced. The diſcovery of this amazing treaſure happened at the commencement of the year 1545, by a mere accident, which we ſhall mention afterwards. At a ſmall diſtance from it are the hot medicinal baths, called Don Diego, whither ſome reſort for health and others for diverſion.

At the time when the firſt conqueſts were made, when emigrations were moſt frequent, the country of the Incas had a much greater reputation for riches than New-Spain, and, in reality, for a long time much more conſiderable treaſures were brought away from it. The deſire of partaking of them muſt neceſſarily draw thither, as was really the caſe, a greater number of Caſtilians. Though almoſt all of them went over thither with the hope of returning to their country to enjoy the fortune they might acquire, yet the majority ſettled in the colony. They were induced to this by the ſoftneſs of the climate, the ſalubrity of the air, and the goodneſs of the proviſions. Mexico preſented not the ſame advantages, and did not give them reaſon to expect ſo much independence as a land infinitely more remote from the mother country.

Cuſco attracted the conquerors in multitudes: they found this capital built on a ground that was very irregular, and divided into as many quarters as there were provinces in the empire. Each of the inhabitants might follow the uſages of his native country, but every body was obliged to conform to the worſhip eſtabliſhed by the founder of the monarchy. There was no edifice that had any grandeur, elegance or convenience, becauſe the people were ignorant of the firſt elements of architecture. The magnificence of what they called the "palace of the ſovereign, of the princes of the blood, and of the great men of his empire," conſiſted in the profuſion of the metals that were laviſhed in decorating them. The temple of the Sun was diſtinguiſhed above all other edifices; its walls were incruſted or ſheathed with gold and ſilver, ornamented with divers figures, and loaded with the idols of all the nations whom the Incas had enlightened and ſubdued.

As it was not a ſolicitude for their own preſervation which occupied the Spaniards at firſt, they had no ſooner pillaged the immenſe riches which had been amaſſed at Cuſco for four centuries, than they went

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in great numbers in 1534, under the order of Sebaſtian de Benalcazar, to undertake the deſtruction of Quito. The other towns and boroughs of the empire were over-run with the ſame ſpirit of rapine; and the citizens and the temples were plundered in all parts.

Thoſe of the conquerors, who did not take up their reſidence in the ſettlements which they found already formed, built towns on the ſea-coaſts, where before there were none; for the ſterility of the ſoil had not permitted the Peruvians to multiply much there, and they had not been induced to remove thither from the extremity of their country, becauſe they ſailed very little. Paita, Truxillo, Callao, Piſca and Arica, were the roads which the Spaniards deemed moſt convenient for the communication they intended to eſtabliſh among themſelves and with the mother country. The different poſitions of theſe new cities determined the degree of their proſperity.

Thoſe which were afterwards built in the inland parts of the country were erected in regions which preſented a fertile ſoil, copious harveſts, excellent paſtures, a mild and ſalubrious climate, and all the conveniences of life. Theſe places, which had hitherto been ſo well cultivated by a numerous and flouriſhing people, were now totally diſregarded. Very ſoon they exhibited only a deplorable picture of a horrid deſert; and this wildneſs muſt have been more melancholy and hideous than the dreary aſpect of the earth before the origin of ſocieties. The traveller, who was led by accident or curioſity into theſe deſolate plains, could not forbear abhorring the barbarous and bloody authors of ſuch devaſtations, while he reflected that it was not owing even to the cruel illuſions of glory, and to the fanaticiſm of conqueſt, but to the ſtupid and abject deſire of gold, that they had ſacrificed ſo much more real treaſure, and ſo numerous a population.

This inſatiable thirſt of gold, which neither tended to ſubſiſtence, ſafety nor policy, was the only motive for eſtabliſhing new ſettlements, ſome of which have been kept up, while ſeveral have decayed, and others have been formed in their ſtead. The fate of them all has correſponded with the diſcovery, progreſs or declenſion of the mines to which they were ſubordinate.

Fewer errors have been committed in the means of procuring proviſions. The natives had hitherto lived hardly on any thing but maize, fruits and pulſe, for which they had uſed no othe ſeaſoning except ſalt and pimento. Their liquors, which we made from different roots, were more diverſified; of theſe the chicha

was the moſt uſual; but the conquerors were not ſatisfied either with the liquors or with the food of the people they had ſubdued. They imported vines from the old world, which ſoon multiplied ſufficiently in the ſands of the coaſts at Ica, Piſca, Naſca, Moquequa, and Truxillo, to furniſh the colony with the wine and brandy it wanted. Olives ſucceeded ſtill better, and yielded a great abundance of oil, which was much ſuperior to that of the mother country. Other fruits were tranſplanted with the ſame ſucceſs. Sugar ſucceeds ſo well, that none of any other growth can be compared to that which is cultivated in thoſe parts, where it never rains. In the inland country wheat and barley were ſown; and at length all the European quadrupeds were ſoon found grazing at the foot of the mountains.

This was a conſiderable ſtep, but there ſtill remained much more to be done. After they had provided for a better and a greater choice of ſubſiſtence, the next care of the Spaniards was to have a dreſs more commodious and more agreeable than that of the Peruvians. Theſe were, however, better clothed than any other American nation. They owed this ſuperiority to the advantage which they alone poſſeſſed, of having the lama and pacos, domeſtic animals, which ſerved them for this uſe.

After the conqueſt, all the Indians were obliged to wear clothes. As the oppreſſion under which they groaned did not allow them to exerciſe their former induſtry, they contented themſelves with the coarſer cloths of Europe, for which they were made to pay an exorbitant price. When the gold and ſilver which had eſcaped the rapacity of the conquerors were exhauſted, they thought of re-eſtabliſhing their national manufactures. Theſe were ſome time after prohibited, on account of the deficiency which they occaſioned in the exports of the mother country. The impoſſibility which the Peruvians found of purchaſing foreign ſtuffs, and paying their taxes, occaſioned permiſſion to be given at the end of ten years for their re-eſtabliſhment. They have not been diſcontinued ſince that time, and have been brought to as great a degree of perfection as it was poſſible they could be under a continual tyranny.

With the wool of the vicuna, a ſpecies of wild pacos, they make, at Cuſco and its territory, ſtockings, handkerchiefs and ſcarfs. Theſe manufactures would have been multiplied, if the ſpirit of deſtruction had not fallen on animals as well as on men. The ſame wool, mixed with that of the ſheep imported thither from Europe, which have

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exceedingly degenerated, ſerves for carpets, and makes alſo tolerably fine cloth. Fleeces of inferior quality are employed in ſerges, druggets, and in all kinds of coarſe ſtuffs.

The manufactures ſubſervient to luxury are eſtabliſhed at Arequipa, Cuſco and Lima. In theſe three towns is made a prodigious number of gold toys and plate, for the uſe of private perſons, and alſo for the churches. All theſe manufactures are but coarſely wrought, and mixed with a great deal of copper. We ſeldom diſcover more taſte in their gold and ſilver laces and embroideries, which their manufactures alſo produce. This is not altogether the caſe in regard to their lace, which, when mixed with that of Europe, looks very beautiful. This laſt manufacture is commonly in the hands of the nuns, who employ in it the Peruvian girls, and the young meſtees of the towns, who for the moſt part, before marriage, paſs ſome years in the convent.

Other hands are employed in painting and gilding leather for rooms, in making with wood and ivory pieces of inlaid work and ſculpture, and in drawing figures on the marble that is found at Cucuca, or on linen imported from Europe. Theſe different works, which are almoſt all manufactured at Cuſco, ſerve for ornaments for houſes, palaces and temples; the drawing of them is not bad, but the colours are neither exact nor permanent. If the Indians, who invent nothing, but are excellent imitators, had able maſters and excellent models, they would at leaſt make good copyiſts. At the cloſe of the laſt century, ſome works of a Peruvian painter, named Michael de St. Jacques, were brought to Rome, and the connoiſſeurs diſcovered marks of genius in them.

Though the Peruvians were unacquainted with coin, they knew the uſe of gold and ſilver, for they employed them in different kinds of ornaments. Independent of what the torrents and accident procured them of theſe metals, ſome mines had been opened of little depth. The Spaniards have not tranſmitted to us the manner in which theſe rich productions were drawn from the boſom of the earth. Their pride, which has deprived us of ſo much uſeful knowledge, undoubtedly made them think, that, in the inventions of a people whom they called barbarous, there was nothing that was worthy to be recorded.

The difference as to the manner in which the Peruvians worked their mines, did not extend to the mines themſelves. The conquerors opened them on all ſides. At firſt the gold mines tempted

the avarice of the greater number. Fatal experience diſcouraged thoſe whom paſſion had not blinded: they clearly ſaw, that, for ſome enormous fortunes raiſed in this manner, great numbers, who had only moderate fortunes, were totally ruined. Theſe mines ſunk into ſuch diſcredit, that, in order to prevent them from being abandoned, the government was obliged to take the twentieth part of their produce, inſtead of the fifth, which it at firſt received.

The mines of ſilver were more common, more equal, and richer. They even produced ſilver of a ſingular ſpecies, rarely found elſewhere. Towards the ſea-coaſt great lumps of this metal are found in the ſands.

There are a great number of other mines which are infinitely more important, and are found in the rocks and on the mountains. Several of them gave falſe hopes; ſuch, in particular, was that of Ucuntaya, diſcovered in 1713: this was only an incruſtation of almoſt maſſy ſilver, which at firſt yielded ſeveral millions, but was ſoon exhauſted.

Others which were deeper have been alike deſerted: their produce, though equal to what it was originally, was not ſufficient to ſupport the expenſe of working them, which augmented every day. The mines of Quito, Cuſco and Arequipa, have experienced that revolution which awaits many of the reſt.

There are greater numbers of very rich mines which the waters have invaded. The diſpoſition of the ground, which from the ſummit of the Cordilleras goes continually ſhelving to the South ſea, muſt neceſſarily render theſe events more common at Peru than in other places. This inconvenience, which with greater care and ſkill might often have been prevented or diminiſhed, has been in ſome inſtances remedied.

Joſeph Salcedo, about the year 1660, had diſcovered, not far from the town of Puna, the mine of Laycacota: it was ſo rich, that they often cut the ſilver with a chizel. Proſperity had ſo elevated the mind of the proprietor, that he permitted all the Spaniards, who came to ſeek their fortune in this part of the new world, to work ſome days on their own account, without weighing or taking any account of the preſents he made them. This generoſity drew around him an infinite number of people, whoſe avidity made them quarrel with each other, and the love of money made them take up arms and fall upon one another; and their benefactor, who had neglected no expedient to prevent and extinguiſh their ſanguinary contentions,

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was hanged as being the author of them. Whilſt he was in priſon, the water got poſſeſſion of his mine. Superſtition ſoon made it imagined, that this was a puniſhment for the horrid act they had perpetrated againſt him. This idea of Divine vengeance was revered for a long time; but at laſt, in 1740, Diego de Bachna aſſociated with other opulent people to avert the ſprings which had deluged ſo much treaſure. The labours which this difficult undertaking required were not finiſhed till 1754. The mine yields as much now as it did at firſt. But mines ſtill richer than this have been diſcovered: ſuch, for example, is that of Potoſi, which was found in the ſame country where the Incas worked that of Porco.

An Indian, named Hualpa, in 1545, purſuing ſome deer, in order to climb certain ſteep rocks laid hold of a buſh, the roots of which looſened from the earth, and brought to view an ingot of ſilver. The Indian had recourſe to it for his own uſe, and never failed to return to his treaſure every time that his wants or his deſires ſolicited him to it. The change that happened in his fortune was remarked by one of his countrymen, and he diſcovered to him the ſecret. The two friends could not keep their counſel and enjoy their good fortune: they quarrelled; on which the indiſcreet confident diſcovered the whole to his maſter, Villaroell, a Spaniard who was ſettled in the neighbourhood. Upon this the mine became known, and was worked, and a great number of them were found in its vicinity; the principal of which are in the northern part of the mountain, and their direction is from north to ſouth. The moſt intelligent people of Peru have obſerved, that this is in general the direction of the richeſt mines.

The fame of what was paſſing at Potoſi ſoon ſpread abroad, and there was quickly built at the foot of the mountain a town, conſiſting of ſixty thouſand Indians and ten thouſand Spaniards. The ſterility of the ſoil did not prevent its being immediately peopled. Corn, fruit, flocks, American ſtuffs, European luxuries, arrived there from every quarter. Induſtry, which every where follows the current of money, could not ſearch for it with ſo much ſucceſs as at its ſource. It evidently appeared, that in 1738 theſe mines produced annually near nine hundred and ſeventy-eight thouſand pounds, without reckoning the ſilver which was not regiſtered, and what had been carried off by fraud. From that time the produce has been ſo much diminiſhed, that no more than one eighth part of the coin which was formerly ſtruck is now made.

At the mines of Potoſi, and all the mines of South-America, the Spaniards, in purifying their gold and ſilver, uſe mercury, with which they are ſupplied from Guança Velica. The common opinion is, that this mine was diſcovered in 1564: the trade of mercury was then ſtill free; it became an excluſive trade in 1571: at this period all the mines of mercury were ſhut, and that of Guança Velica alone was worked, the property of which the king reſerved to himſelf. It is not found to diminiſh. This mine is dug in a prodigiouſly large mountain, ſixty leagues from Lima. In its profound abyſs are ſeen ſtreets, ſquares, and a chapel, where the myſteries of religion on all feſtivals are celebrated: millions of flambeaux are continually kept to enlighten it.

Private people, at their own expenſe, work the mine of Guança Velica. They are obliged to deliver to government, at a ſtipulated price, all the mercury they extract from it. As ſoon as they have procured the quantity which the demands of one year require, the work is ſuſpended. Part of the mercury is ſold on the ſpot, and the reſt is ſent to the royal magazines throughout all Peru, from whence it is delivered out at the ſame price it is ſold in Mexico. This arrangement, which has occaſioned many of the mines to drop, and prevented others from being opened, is inexcuſable in the Spaniſh ſyſtem: the court of Madrid, in this reſpect, merits the ſame reproaches as a miniſtry in other countries would incur, that would be blind enough to lay a duty on the implements of agriculture.

The mine of Guança Velica generally affects thoſe who work in it with convulſions: this and the other mines, which are not leſs unhealthy, are all worked by the Peruvians. Theſe unfortunate victims of an inſatiable avarice are crowded all together and plunged naked into theſe abyſſes, the greateſt part of which are deep, and all exceſſively cold. Tyranny has invented this refinement in cruelty, to render it impoſſible for any thing to eſcape its reſtleſs vigilance. If there are any wretches who long ſurvive ſuch barbarity, it is the uſe of cocoa that preſerves them.

In the Cordilleras, near the city of Paz, is a mountain of remarkable height, called Illimani, which doubtleſs contains immenſe riches; for a crag of it being ſome years ago ſevered by a flaſh of lightning, and falling on a neighbouring mountain, ſuch a quantity of gold was found in the fragments, that for ſome time that metal was ſold at Paz for eight pieces of eight per ounce; but its ſummit being

being perpetually covered with ice and ſnow, no mine has been opened in the mountain.

The city of La Paz is of a middling ſize, and from its ſituation among the breaches of the Cordilleras, the ground on which it ſtands is unequal, and it is alſo ſurrounded by mountains. When the river Titicaca is increaſed, either by the rains, or the melting of the ſnow on the mountains, its current forces along large maſſes of rocks with ſome grains of gold, which are found after the flood has ſubſided. Hence ſome idea may be formed of the riches incloſed in the bowels of theſe mountains, a remarkable proof of which appeared in the year 1730, when an Indian, waſhing his feet in the river, diſcovered ſo large a lump of gold, that the Marquis de Caſtle Fuerte gave twelve thouſand pieces of eight for it, and ſent it as a preſent to the King of Spain.

HISTORY OF

C H I L I.

CHILI is ſituated between 25° and 45° ſouth latitude, and 65° and 85° weſt longitude; its length is one thouſand two hundred and ſixty miles, and its greateſt breadth five hundred and eighty: it is bounded on the north, by Peru; on the eaſt, by Paragua or La Plata; on the ſouth, by Patagonia; and on the weſt, by the Pacific ocean. It lies on both ſides of the Andes; Chili Proper lies on the weſt, and Cuyo or Cutio, on the eaſt. The principal towns in the former are St. Jago and Baldivia; in the latter, St. John de Frontiera.

The firſt attempt of the Spaniards upon this country was made by Almagro in the year 1535, after he and Pizaro had completed the conqueſt of Peru. He ſet out on his expedition to Chili with a conſiderable body of Spaniards and auxiliary Indians. For two hundred leagues he was well accommodated with every neceſſary by the Indians, who had been ſubjects of the Emperors of Peru; but reaching the barren country of Charcos, his troops became diſcontented through the hardſhips they ſuffered, which determined Almagro to climb the mountains called Cordilleras, in order to get the ſooner into Chili; being ignorant of the invaluable mines of Potoſi, contained in the province of Charcos, where he then was. At that time the Cordilleras were covered with ſnow, the depth of which obliged him to dig his way through it. The cold made ſuch an impreſſion on his naked Indians, that it is computed no leſs than ten thouſand of them periſhed on theſe dreadful mountains, one hundred and fifty of the Spaniards ſharing the ſame fate, while many of the ſurvivors loſt their fingers and toes through the exceſs of cold. At laſt, after encountering incredible difficulties, Almagro reached a fine, temperate, and fertile plain on the oppoſite ſide of the Cordilleras, where he was received with the greateſt kindneſs by the natives. Theſe poor ſavages, taking the Spaniards for deputies of their god

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Virachoca, immediately collected for them an offering of gold and ſilver, worth two hundred and ninety thouſand ducats; and ſoon after brought a preſent to Almagro worth three hundred thouſand more. Theſe offerings only determined him to conquer the whole country as ſoon as poſſible. The Indians, among whom he now was, had acknowledged the authority of the Peruvian Incas, or Emperors, and conſequently gave Almagro no trouble. He therefore marched immediately againſt thoſe who had never been conquered by the Peruvians, and inhabited the ſouthern parts of Chili. Theſe ſavages fought with great reſolution, and diſputed every inch of ground; but in five months time the Spaniards had made ſuch progreſs, that they muſt infallibly have reduced the whole province in a very little time, had not Almagro returned to Peru, in conſequence of a commiſſion ſent him from Spain.

In 1540, Pizaro having overcome and put Almagro to death, ſent into Chili, Baldivia or Valdivia, who had learned the rudiments of war in Italy, and was reckoned one of the beſt officers in the Spaniſh ſervice. As he penetrated ſouthward, however, he met with much oppoſition; the confederated caziques frequently gave him battle, and diſplayed great courage and reſolution, but could not prevent him from penetrating to the valley of Maſiocho, which he found incredibly fertile and populous. Here he founded the city of St. Jago, and finding gold mines in the neighbourhood, forced the Indians to work in them, at the ſame time building a caſtle for the ſafety and protection of his new colony. The natives, exaſperated at this ſlavery, immediately took up arms, attacked the fort, and though defeated and repulſed, ſet fire to the out works, which contained all the proviſions of the Spaniards. Nor were they diſcouraged by this and many other defeats, but ſtill continued to carry on the war with vigour. At laſt, Valdivia having overcome them in many battles, forced the inhabitants of the vale to ſubmit; upon which he immediately ſet them to work in the mines of Quilotta. This indignity offered to their countrymen redoubled the fury of thoſe who remained at liberty. Their utmoſt efforts, however, were as yet unable to ſtop Valdivia's progreſs. Having croſſed the large rivers Maulle and Hata, he traverſed a vaſt tract of country and founded the city of La Conception on the South ſea coaſt; he erected fortreſſes in ſeveral parts of the country, in order to keep the natives in awe, and built the city called Imperial, about forty leagues to the ſouthward of Conception. The Spaniſh writers ſay, that the neighbouring valley contained eighty thouſand inhabitants of a

peaceable diſpoſition, and who were even ſo tame as to ſuffer Valdivia to parcel out their lands among his followers, while they themſelves remained in a ſtate of inactivity. About ſixteen leagues to the eaſtward of Imperial, the Spaniſh general laid the foundations of the city of Villa Rica, ſo called on account of the rich gold mines he found there. But his ambition and avarice had now involved him in difficulties from which he could never be extricated: he had extended his conqueſts beyond what his ſtrength was capable of maintaining. The Chileſians were ſtill as deſirous as ever of recovering their liberties. The horſes, fire arms, and armour of the Spaniards, indeed, appeared dreadful to them; but thoughts of endleſs ſlavery were ſtill more ſo. In the courſe of the war they had diſcovered that the Spaniards were vulnerable and mortal men like themſelves; they hoped, therefore, by dint of ſuperiority in numbers, to be able to expel the tyrannical uſurpers. Had all the nations joined in this reſolution, the Spaniards had certainly been exterminated; but ſome of them were of a pacific diſpoſition, while others conſidered ſervitude as the greateſt of all poſſible calamities. Of this laſt opinion were the Araccean, the moſt intrepid people of Chili, and who had given Valdivia the greateſt trouble. They all roſe to a man, and choſe Capaulican, a renowned hero among them, for their leader. Valdivia, however, received notice of their revolt ſooner than they intended he ſhould, and returned with all expedition to the vale of Araccea; but before he arrived, fourteen thouſand of the Chileſians were there aſſembled under the conduct of Capaulican; he attacked them with his cavalry, and forced them to retreat into the woods, but could not obtain a complete victory, as they kept continually ſallying out and haraſſing his men. At laſt Capaulican having obſerved, that fighting with ſuch a number of undiſciplined troops, only ſerved to contribute to the defeat and confuſion of the whole, divided his forces into bodies of one thouſand each. Theſe he directed to attack the enemy by turns, and though he did not expect that a ſingle thouſand would put them to flight, he directed them to make as long a ſtand as they could, when they were to be relieved and ſupported by another body, and thus the Spaniards would be at laſt wearied out and overcome. The event fully anſwered his expectations. The Chileſians maintained a fight for ſeven or eight hours, till the Spaniards, growing faint for want of refreſhment, retired precipitately. Valdivia ordered them to poſſeſs a paſs at ſome diſ-

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tance from the field, to ſtop the purſuit; but this deſign being was a diſcovered to the Chileſians of his page, who native of that country, the Spaniards were ſurrounded on all ſides, and cut in pieces by the Indians. The general was taken and put to death; ſome ſay with the tortures uſually inflicted by thoſe ſavages on their priſoners; others, that he had melted gold poured down his throat; but all agree, that the Indians made flutes and other inſtruments of his bones, and preſerved his ſkull as a monument of their victory, which they celebrated by an annual feſtival. After this victory, the Chileſians had another engagement with their enemies, in which alſo they proved victorious, defeating the Spaniards with the loſs of near three thouſand men; and upon this they bent their whole force againſt the colonies. The city of Conception being abandoned by the Spaniards, was taken and deſtroyed; but the Indians were forced to raiſe the ſiege of Imperial, and their progreſs was at laſt ſtopped by Garcia de Mendoza, who defeated Capaulican, took him priſoner, and put him to death. No defeats, however, could diſpirit the Chileſians; they continued the war for fifty years, and to this day they remain unconquered, and give the Spaniards more trouble than any other American nation. Their moſt irreconcileable enemies are the inhabitants of Araccea and Tucapel, thoſe to the ſouth of the river Bobio, or whoſe country extends towards the Cordilleras. The manners of theſe people greatly reſemble thoſe of North-America, but ſeem to have a more warlike diſpoſition. It is a conſtant rule with the Chileſians never to ſue for peace. The Spaniards are obliged not only to make the firſt overtures, but to purchaſe it by preſents. They have at laſt been obliged to abandon all thoughts of extending their conqueſts, and reduced to cover their frontiers by erecting forts at proper diſtances.

The Spaniſh colonies in Chili are diſperſed on the borders of the South ſea. They are parted from Peru by a deſert eighty leagues in breadth, and bounded by the iſland of Chiloe, at the extremity next the ſtraits of Magellan. There are no ſettlements on the coaſt except thoſe of Baldivia, Conception iſland, Valparaiſo, and Coquimbo, or La Serena, which are all ſea ports. In the inland country is St. Jago, the capital of the colony. There is no culture nor habitation at any diſtance from theſe towns. The buildings in the whole province are low, made of unburnt brick, and moſtly thatched. This practice is obſerved on account of the frequent earthquakes, and is

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properly adapted to the nature of the climate, as to well as the indolence of the inhabitants.

The climate of Chili is one of the moſt wholeſome in the whole world. The vicinity of the Cordilleras gives it ſuch a delightful temperature as could not otherwiſe be expected in that latitude. Though gold mines are found in it, their richneſs has been too much extolled; their produce never exceeds two hundred and eighteen thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty pounds per ann. The ſoil is prodigiouſly fertile. All the European fruits have improved in that happy climate. The wine would be excellent if nature were properly aſſiſted by art; and the corn harveſt is reckoned a bad one when it does not yield a hundred fold. With all theſe advantages, Chili has no direct intercourſe with Spain; their trade is confined to Peru, Paraguay, and the ſavages on their frontiers. With theſe laſt they exchange their leſs valuable commodities for oxen, horſes, and their own children, whom they are ready to part with for the moſt trifling things. This province ſupplies Peru with great plenty of hides, dried fruit, copper, ſalt meat, horſes, hemp, lard, wheat, and gold; in exchange, it receives tobacco, ſugar, cocoa, earthen ware, woollen cloth, linen, hats, made at Quito, and every article of luxury brought from Europe. The ſhips ſent from Callao on this traffic were formerly bound to Conception bay, but now come to Valparaiſo. The commerce between this province and Paraguay is carried on by land, though it is a journey of three hundred leagues, forty of which lie through the ſnows and precipices of the Cordilleras; but if it was carried on by ſea, they muſt either paſs the ſtraits of Magellan, or double cape Horn, which the Spaniards always avoid as much as poſſible. To Paraguay are ſent ſome woollen ſtuffs called ponchos, which are uſed for cloaks: alſo wines, brandy, oil, and chiefly gold; in return they receive wax, a kind of tallow fit to make ſoap, European goods, and negroes.

Chili is governed by a chief, who is abſolute in all civil, political, and military affairs, and is alſo independent of the viceroy. The latter has no authority except when a governor dies, in which caſe he may appoint one in his room for a time, till Spain names a ſucceſſor. If on ſome occaſion the viceroy has interfered in the government of Chili, it was when he has been either authoriſed by a particular truſt repoſed in him by the court, or by the deference paid to the eminence of his office; or when he has been actuated by his

his own ambition to extend his authority.* In the whole province of Chili there are not twenty thouſand white men, and not more than ſixty thouſand negroes, or Indians, able to bear arms. The military eſtabliſhment amounted formerly to two thouſand men; but the maintaining of them being found too expenſive, they were reduced to five hundred at the beginning of this century.

* With reſpect to the power o the governor of Chili, it is doubtful whether the above is correct, as ſome writers aſſert that he is ſubordinate to the viceroy of Peru, in all matters relating to the government, to the finances, and to war, but independent of him as chief adminiſtrator of juſtice, and preſident of the royal Audience. Eleven inferior officers, diſtributed in the province, are charged, under his orders, with the details of adminiſtration.

HISTORY OF

PARAGUAY, OR LA PLATA.

PARAGUAY is ſituated between 12° and 37° ſouth latitude, and 50° and 75° weſt longitude; its length is one thouſand five hundred miles, and its breadth one thouſand. It is bounded on the north, by Amazonia; on the eaſt, by Braſil; on the ſouth, by Patagonia; and on the weſt, by Chili and Peru.

It is divided into ſix provinces, viz. PARAGUAY, PARANA, GUAIRA, URAGUA, TUCUMAN, and RIO DE LA PLATA.

This country, beſides an infinite number of ſmall rivers, is watered by three principal ones, the Paragua, Uragua, and Parana, which, united near the ſea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or Plate river, and which annually overflow their banks; and on their receſs, leave them enriched with a ſlime, that produces the greateſt plenty of whatever is committed to it.*

This vaſt tract is far from being wholly ſubdued or planted by the Spaniards. There are many parts in a great degree unknown to them, or

* The grand river La Plata deſerves a particular deſcription. A Modeneſe Jeſuit, by the name of P. Cattanco, who ſailed up this river, ſpeaks in the following language concerning it: "While I reſided in Europe, and read in books of hiſtory or geography that the river de la Plata was one hundred and fifty miles in breadth, I conſidered it as an exaggeration, becauſe in this hemiſphere we have no example of ſuch vaſt rivers. When I approached its mouth, I had the moſt vehement deſire to aſcertain the breadth with my own eyes, and I have found the matter to be exactly as it was repreſented. This I deduce particularly from one circumſtance: when we took our departure from Monte Viedo, a fort ſituated more than one hundred miles from the mouth of the river, and where its breadth is conſiderably diminiſhed, we ſailed a complete day before we diſcovered the land on the oppoſite ſide of the river; and when we were in the middle of the channel, we could not diſcover land on either ſide, and ſaw nothing but the ſky and water, as if we had been in ſome great ocean. Indeed, we ſhould have taken it to be ſea, if the freſh water of the river, which was turbid like the Po, had not ſatisfied us that it was a river."

to any other people in Europe. The principal province of which we have any knowledge, is that which is called Rio de la Plata, towards the mouth of the above-mentioned rivers. This province, with all the adjacent parts, is one continued plain for ſeveral hundred miles, extremely fertile, and produces cotton in great quantities; tobacco, and the valuable herb called paraguay, with a variety of fruits, and the prodigious rich paſtures, in which are bred ſuch herds of cattle, that it is ſaid the hides of the beaſts are all that is properly bought, the carcaſe being in a manner given into the bargain. A horſe ſome time ago might be bought for a dollar, and the uſual price of a bullock, choſen out of a herd of two or three hundred, was only four rials. But contrary to the general nature of America, this country is deſtitute of woods. The air is remarkable ſweet and ſerene, and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and wholeſome.

The Spaniards firſt diſcovered this country by ſailing up the river La Plata in 1515, and founded the town of Buenos Ayres, ſo called on account of the excellence of the air, on the ſouth ſide of the river, fifty leagues within its mouth, where it is ſeven leagues broad. This is one of the moſt conſiderable towns in South-America, the capital of this country, and the only place of traffic to the ſouth of Brazil. Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru, but no regular fleet comes hither as to the other parts of South-America; two, or at moſt three regiſter ſhips make the whole of their regular intercourſe with Europe; their returns are very valuable, conſiſting chiefly of the gold and ſilver of Chili and Peru, ſugar and hides. Thoſe who have carried on a contraband trade to this city, have found it more advantageous than any other. The benefit of this contraband is now wholly in the hands of the Portugueſe, who keep magazines for that purpoſe in ſuch parts of Braſil as lie near this country.

Buenos Ayres is regularly built, its ſtreets are wide, the houſes are extremely low, and each of them is accommodated with a garden. The public and private buildings which, ſixty years ago, were all made of earth, are of more ſolid and commodious conſtruction, ſince the natives have learned the art of making brick and lime. The number of inhabitants is about thirty thouſand. One ſide of the town is defended by a fortreſs with a garriſon of ſix or ſeven hundred men; the ſhips get to it by ſailing up a river that wants depth, is full of iſlands, ſhoals, and rocks, and where ſtorms are more frequent and more dreadful than on the ocean. It is neceſſary to

anchor every night on the ſpot where they come to, and on the moſt moderate days a pilot muſt go to ſound the way for the ſhip; after having ſurmounted theſe difficulties, the ſhips are obliged, at the diſtance of three leagues from the town, to put their goods on board ſome light veſſel, and to go to refit, and to wait for their cargoes at Incunado de Barragan, ſituated ſeven or eight leagues below.

Paragua ſends annually into the kingdom of Peru as many as one thouſand five hundred, or two thouſand mules. They travel over dreary deſerts for the diſtance of eight or nine hundred leagues. What is not man capable of doing, when neceſſity, reſolution, and avarice are united? neither deep and miry ſwamps, nor ſummits of lofty mountains covered with eternal ſnow, can bar his progreſs. The province of Tucuman furniſhes annually, ſixteen or eighteen thouſand oxen, and four or five thouſand horſes, brought forth and reared upon its own territory. Paragua ſends ſeveral articles of commerce to Spain, but they are all brought from neighbouring diſtricts. The only article it furniſhes from its own territory is hides, all theſe are ſent to Europe from Buenos Ayres.

We cannot quit this country without mentioning that extraordinary ſpecies of commonwealth which the Jeſuits erected in the interior parts, and concerning which theſe crafty prieſts have endeavoured to keep ſtrangers in the dark.

About the middle of the laſt century, thoſe fathers repreſented to the court of Spain, that the want of ſucceſs in their miſſions was owing to the ſcandal which the immorality of the Spaniards never failed to give, and to the hatred which their inſolent behaviour cauſed in the Indians. They inſinuated, that were it not for thoſe obſtacles, the empire of the goſpel might, by their labours, have been extended into the moſt unknown parts of America; and that all thoſe countries might be ſubdued to his Catholic majeſty's obedience, without expenſe, and without force. This remonſtrance met with ſucceſs, the ſphere of their labours was marked out, and the governors of the adjacent provinces had orders not to interfere, nor to ſuffer any Spaniards to enter into this pale, without licences from the fathers; they, on their part, agreed to pay a certain capitation tax, in proportion to their flock, and to ſend a certain number to the king's works whenever they ſhall be demanded, and the miſſions ſhould become populous enough to ſupply them.

On theſe terms theſe Jeſuits gladly entered upon the ſcene of action, and opened their ſpiritual campaign. They began by gathering toge-

together about fifty wandering families, whom they perſuaded to ſettle, and they united them into a little townſhip. This was the ſlight foundation upon which they built a ſuperſtructure which amazed the world, and added much to their power, at the ſame time that it occaſioned much envy againſt their ſociety. For when they had made this beginning, they laboured with ſuch indefatigable pains, and ſuch maſterly policy, that by degrees they mollified the minds of the moſt ſavage nations, fixed the moſt rambling, and ſubdued thoſe to their government who had long diſdained to ſubmit to the arms of the Spaniards and Portugueſe. They prevailed upon thouſands of various diſperſed tribes to embrace their religion, and theſe ſoon induced others to follow their example, magnifying the peace and tranquillity they enjoyed under the direction of the Fathers.

Our limits do not permit us to trace with preciſion all the ſteps which were taken in the accompliſhment of ſo extraordinary a conqueſt over the bodies and minds of men. The Jeſuits left nothing undone that could confirm their ſubjection, or that could increaſe their number; and it is ſaid that above three hundred and forty thouſand families lived in obedience, and expreſſed an awe, bordering upon adoration, yet procured without any violence or conſtraint; that the Indians were inſtructed in the military art, and could raiſe ſixty thouſand men well armed; that they lived in towns, were regularly clad, laboured in agriculture, exerciſed manufactures, ſome even aſpired to the elegant arts, and that nothing could equal their ſubmiſſion to authority, except their contentment under it. Some writers have treated the character of theſe Jeſuits with great ſeverity, accuſing them of ambition, pride, and of carrying their authority to ſuch an ſucceſs, as to cauſe not only perſons of both ſexes, but even the magiſtrates, who were always choſen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with ſtripes, and by ſuffering perſons of the higheſt diſtinction, within their juriſdictions, to kiſs the hem of their garments as the greateſt honour. The prieſts themſelves poſſeſſed large property, all manufactures were theirs, the natural produce of the country was brought to them, and the treaſures annually remitted to the ſuperior of the order, ſeemed to evince that zeal for religion was not the only motive for forming theſe miſſions. The Fathers would not permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, Meſtizos, or even Indians, to come within their miſſions in Paraguay. In the year 1757, when part of this territory was ceded by Spain to the crown of Portugal in exchange for Saint Sacra-

ment, to make the Uragua the boundary of their poſſeſſions, the Jeſuits refuſed to comply with this diviſion, or to ſuffer themſelves to be transferred from one hand to another, like cattle, without their own conſent. We were informed by the Spaniſh Gazette, that the Indians actually took up arms; but notwithſtanding the exactneſs of their diſcipline, they were eaſily, and with conſiderable ſlaughter, defeated by the European troops who were ſent to quell them; and in 1767, the Jeſuits were removed from America, by royal authority, and their late ſubjects were put upon the ſame footing with the reſt of the inhabitants of the country.

WITH reſpect to the iſlands belonging to the Spaniſh monarchy in this part of the globe, we ſhall notice them in another place; but in order to afford a more particular view of the Spaniſh intereſt in her South-American colonies, as well as of the policy purſued by her with reſpect to them, we ſhall offer a few additional general remarks on the government, eccleſiaſtical eſtabliſhment, and ſyſtem of trade carried on with them.

Notwithſtanding the rapid depopulation of America, a very conſiderable number of the native race ſtill remains both in Mexico and Peru, eſpecially in thoſe parts which were not expoſed to the firſt fury of the Spaniſh arms, or deſolated by the firſt efforts of their induſtry, ſtill more ruinous. In Guatimala, Chiapa, Nicaragua, and the other provinces of the Mexican empire, which ſtretch along the South ſea, the race of Indians is ſtill numerous; their ſettlements in ſome places are ſo populous, as to merit the name of cities. In the three audiences into which New-Spain is divided, there are, as we have before mentioned, at leaſt two millions of Indians; a pitiful remnant, indeed, of its ancient population, but ſuch as ſtill forms a body of people ſuperior in number to that of all the other inhabitants of this extenſive country. In Peru ſeveral diſtricts, particularly in the kingdom of Quito, are occupied almoſt entirely by Indians. In other provinces they are mingled with the Spaniards, and in many of their ſettlements are almoſt the only perſons who practiſe the mechanic arts, and fill moſt of the inferior ſtations in ſociety.

ciety. As the inhabitants both of Mexico and Peru were accuſtomed to a fixed reſidence, and to a certain degree of regular induſtry, leſs violence was requiſite in bringing them to ſome conformity with the European modes of civil life. But wherever the Spaniards ſettled among the ſavage tribes of America, their attempts to incorporate with them have been always fruitleſs, and often fatal to the natives. Impatient of reſtraint, and diſdaining labour as a mark of ſervility, they either abandoned their original ſeats, and ſought for independence in mountains and foreſts inacceſſible to their oppreſſors, or periſhed when reduced to a ſtate repugnant to their ancient ideas and habits. In the diſtricts adjacent to Carthagena, to Panama, and to Buenos Ayres, the deſolation is more general than even in thoſe parts of Mexico and Peru, of which the Spaniards have taken moſt full poſſeſſion.

But the eſtabliſhments of the Spaniards in the new world, though fatal to its ancient inhabitants, were made at a period when that monarchy was capable of forming them to the beſt advantage. By the union of all its petty kingdoms, Spain was become a powerful ſtate, equal to ſo great an undertaking. Its monarchs having extended their prerogatives far beyond the limits which once circumſcribed the regal power in every kingdom of Europe, were hardly ſubject to controul, either in concerting or in executing their meaſures.

Such was the power of the Spaniſh monarchs, when they were called to deliberate concerning the mode of eſtabliſhing their dominion over the moſt remote provinces which had ever been ſubjected to any European ſtate. In this deliberation they felt themſelves under no *conſtitutional* reſtraint, and that as independent maſters of their own reſolves, they might iſſue the edicts requiſite for modelling the government of the new colonies, by a mere act of prerogative.

This early interpoſition of the Spaniſh crown in order to regulate the policy and trade of its colonies, is a peculiarity which diſtinguiſhes their progreſs from that of the colonies of any other European nation. When the Portugueſe, the Engliſh, and French, took poſſeſſion of the regions in America, the advantages which theſe promiſed to yield were ſo remote and uncertain, that their colonies were ſuffered to ſtruggle through a hard infancy, almoſt without guidance or protection from the parent ſtate. But gold and ſilver, the firſt productions of the Spaniſh ſettlements in the new world, were more alluring, and immediately attracted the attention of their monarchs.

Though they had contributed little to the diſcovery, and almoſt nothing to the conqueſt of the new world, they inſtantly aſſumed the function of its legiſlators, and having acquired a ſpecies of dominion formerly unknown, they formed a plan for exerciſing it, to which nothing ſimilar occurs in the hiſtory of human affairs.

The fundamental maxim of Spaniſh juriſprudence with reſpect to America, is to conſider what has been acquired there as veſted in the crown, rather than in the ſtate. By the bull of Alexander VI. on which, as its great charter, Spain founded its right, all the regions that had been, or ſhould be diſcovered, were beſtowed as a free gift upon Ferdinand and Iſabella. They and their ſucceſſors were uniformly held to be the univerſal proprietors of the vaſt territories which the arms of their ſubjects conquered in the new world. From them all grants of land there flowed, and to them they finally returned. The leaders who conducted the various expeditions, the governors who preſided over the different colonies, the officers of juſtice, and the miniſters of religion, were all appointed by their authority, and removeable at their pleaſure. The people who compoſed infant ſettlements were entitled to no privileges independent of the ſovereign, or that ſerved as a barrier againſt the power of the crown. It is true, that when towns were built, and formed into bodies corporate, the citizens were permitted to elect their own magiſtrates, who governed them by laws which the community enacted. Even in the moſt deſpotic ſtates, this feeble ſpark of liberty is not extinguiſhed; but in the cities of Spaniſh America, this juriſdiction is merely municipal, and is confined to the regulation of their own interior commerce and police. In whatever relates to public government, and the general intereſt, the will of the ſovereign is law; no political power originates from the people; all centers in the crown, and in the officers of its nomination.

When the conqueſts of the Spaniards in America were completed, their monarchs, in forming the plan of internal policy for their new dominions, divided them into two immenſe governments, one ſubject to the viceroy of New-Spain, the other to the viceroy of Peru; the juriſdiction of the former extended over all the provinces belonging to Spain in the northern diviſion of the American continent; under that of the latter, was comprehended whatever ſhe poſſeſſed in South-America. This arrangement, which, from the beginning, was attended with many inconveniencies, became intolerable when the remote provinces of each vice-royalty began to improve in induſtry

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and population. As a remedy for thoſe evils, a third vice-royalty has been eſtabliſhed in the preſent century at Santa Fé de Bogota, the capital of the new kingdom of Granada, the juriſdiction of which extends over the whole kingdom of Tierra Firmé and the province of Quito. Thoſe viceroys not only repreſent the perſon of their ſovereign, but poſſeſs his regal prerogatives within the precincts of their own governments, in their utmoſt extent. Like him, they exerciſe ſupreme authority in every department of government, civil, military and criminal. They have the ſole right of nominating the perſons who hold many offices of the higheſt importance, and the occaſional privilege of ſupplying thoſe which, when they become vacant by death, are in the royal gift, until the ſucceſſor appointed by the king ſhall arrive. The external pomp of their government is ſuited to its real dignity and power. Their courts are formed upon the model of that at Madrid, with horſe and foot guards, a houſhold regularly eſtabliſhed, numerous attendants, and enſigns of command, diſplaying ſuch magnificence as hardly retains the appearance of delegated authority.

But as the viceroys cannot diſcharge in perſon the functions of a ſupreme magiſtrate in every part of their extenſive juriſdiction, they are aided in their government by officers and tribunals ſimilar to thoſe in Spain. The conduct of civil affairs in the various provinces and diſtricts, into which the Spaniſh dominions in America are divided, is committed to magiſtrates of various orders and denominations; ſome appointed by the king, others by the viceroy, but all ſubject to the command of the latter, and amenable to his juriſdiction. The adminiſtration of juſtice is veſted in tribunals, known by the name of Audiences, and formed upon the model of the court of chancery in Spain. Theſe are eleven in number, and diſpenſe juſtice to as many diſtricts, into which the Spaniſh dominions in America are divided. The number of judges in the court of Audience is various, according to the extent and importance of their juriſdiction. The ſtation is no leſs honourable than lucrative. Both civil and criminal cauſes come under their cognizance, and for each peculiar judges are ſet apart. The Spaniſh viceroys have often attempted to intrude themſelves into the ſeat of juſtice, and with an ambition which their diſtance from the controul of a ſuperior rendered bold, have aſpired at a power which even their maſter does not venture to aſſume. In order to check an uſurpation which muſt have annihilated juſtice and ſecurity in the Spaniſh colonies, by ſubjecting

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the lives and property of all to the will of a ſingle man, the viceroys have been prohibited, in the moſt explicit terms, by repeated laws, from interfering in the judicial proceedings of the courts of Audience, or from delivering an opinion, or giving a voice with reſpect to any point litigated before them. In ſome particular caſes, in which any queſtion of civil right is involved, even the political regulations of the viceroy may be brought under the review of the court of Audience, which, in thoſe inſtances, may be deemed an intermediate power placed between him and the people, as a conſtitutional barrier to circumſcribe his juriſdiction. But as legal reſtraints on a perſon who repreſents the ſovereign, and is clothed with his authority, are little ſuited to the genius of Spaniſh policy, the heſitation and reſerve with which it confers this power on the courts of Audience are remarkable. They may adviſe, they may remonſtrate; but, in the event of a direct colliſion between their opinion and the will of the viceroy, what he determines muſt be carried into execution, and nothing remains for them but to lay the matter before the king and the council of the Indies. Upon the death of a viceroy, without any proviſion of a ſucceſſor by the king, the ſupreme power is veſted in the court of Audience reſident in the capital of the vice-royalty, and the ſenior judge, aſſiſted by his brethren, exerciſes all the functions of the viceroy while the office continues vacant. In matters which come under the cognizance of the Audiences, in the courſe of their ordinary juriſdiction, as courts of juſtice, their ſentences are final in every litigation concerning property of leſs value than ſix thouſand peſos; but when the ſubject in diſpute exceeds that ſum, their deciſions are ſubject to review, and may be carried by appeal before the royal council of the Indies.

In this council, one of the moſt conſiderable in the monarchy for dignity and power, is veſted the ſupreme government of all the Spaniſh dominions in America. It was firſt eſtabliſhed by Ferdinand, in the year 1511, and brought into a more perfect form by Charles V. in the year 1524. Its juriſdiction extends to every department, eccleſiaſtical, civil, military and commercial. All laws and ordinances relative to the government and police of the colonies originate there, and muſt be approved of by two-thirds of the members, before they are iſſued in the name of the king. All the offices, of which the nomination is reſerved to the crown, are conferred in this council. To it each perſon employed in America, from the viceroy downwards, is accountable: it reviews their conduct, rewards their ſervices,

vices, and inflicts the puniſhments due to their malverſations: before it, is laid all the intelligence, either public or ſecret, received from America, and every ſcheme of improving the adminiſtration, the police, or the commerce of the colonies, is ſubmitted to its conſideration. From the firſt inſtitution of the council of the Indies, it has been the conſtant object of the catholic monarchs to maintain its authority, and to make ſuch additions from time to time, both to its power and its ſplendor, as might render it formidable to all their ſubjects in the new world. Whatever degree of public order and virtue ſtill remains in that country, where ſo many circumſtances conſpire to relax the former, and to corrupt the latter, may be aſcribed in a great meaſure to the wiſe regulations and vigilant inſpection of this reſpectable tribunal.

As the king is ſuppoſed to be always preſent in his council of the Indies, its meetings are held in the place where he reſides. Another tribunal has been inſtituted, in order to regulate ſuch commercial affairs as required the immediate and perſonal inſpection of thoſe appointed to ſuperintend them: this is called Caſa de la Contratacion, or the houſe of trade, and was eſtabliſhed in Seville, the port to which commerce with the new world was confined, as early as the year 1501. It may be conſidered both as a board of trade and as a court of judicature: in the former capacity, it takes cognizance of whatever relates to the intercourſe of Spain with America; it regulates what commodities ſhould be exported thither, and has the inſpection of ſuch as are received in return: it decides concerning the departure of the fleets for the Weſt-Indies, the freight and burden of the ſhips, their equipment and deſtination: in the latter capacity it judges with reſpect to every queſtion, civil, commercial, or criminal, ariſing in conſequence of the tranſactions of Spain with America; and in both theſe departments, its deciſions are exempted from the review of any court but that of the council of the Indies.

Such is the great outline of that ſyſtem of government which Spain has eſtabliſhed in her American colonies. To enumerate the various ſubordinate boards and officers employed in the adminiſtration of juſtice, in collecting the public revenue, and in regulating the interior police of the country; to deſcribe their different functions, and to inquire into the mode and effect of their operations, would prove a detail no leſs intricate than minute, and unintereſting.

The firſt object of the Spaniſh monarchs was to ſecure the productions of the colonies to the parent ſtate, by an abſolute prohibi-

tion of any intercourſe with foreign nations. They took poſſeſſion of America by right of conqueſt, and, conſcious not only of the feebleneſs of their infant ſettlements, but aware of the difficulty in eſtabliſhing their dominion over regions ſo extenſive, or in retaining ſo many reluctant nations under the yoke, they dreaded the intruſion of ſtrangers; they even ſhunned their inſpection, and endeavoured to keep them at a diſtance from their coaſts. This ſpirit of jealouſy and excluſion, which at firſt was natural, and perhaps neceſſary, augmented as their poſſeſſions in America extended, and the value of them came to be more fully underſtood: in conſequence of it, a ſyſtem of colonizing was introduced, to which there had hitherto been nothing ſimilar among mankind. In their American ſettlements, the Spaniſh monarchs took what was peculiar to each, and ſtudied to unite them. By ſending colonies to regions ſo remote, by eſtabliſhing in each a form of interior policy and adminiſtration, under diſtinct governors, and with peculiar laws, they disjoined them from the mother country. By retaining in their own hands the rights of legiſlation, as well as that of impoſing taxes, together with the power of nominating the perſons who filled every department of executive government, civil or military, they ſecured their dependence upon the parent ſtate. Happily for Spain, the ſituation of her colonies was ſuch, as rendered it poſſible to reduce this new idea into practice. Almoſt all the countries which ſhe had diſcovered and occupied lay within the tropics. The productions of that large portion of the globe are different from thoſe of Europe, even in its moſt ſouthern provinces. The qualities of the climate and of the ſoil naturally turn the induſtry of ſuch as ſettle there into new channels. When the Spaniards firſt took poſſeſſion of their dominions in America, the precious metals which they yielded were the only object that attracted their attention. Even when their efforts began to take a better direction, they employed themſelves almoſt wholly in rearing ſuch peculiar productions of the climate, as, from their rarity or value, were of chief demand in the mother country. Allured by vaſt proſpects of immediate wealth, they diſdained to waſte their induſtry on what was leſs lucrative, but of ſuperior moment. In order to render it impoſſible to correct this error, and to prevent them from making any efforts in induſtry which might interfere with thoſe of the mother country, the eſtabliſhment of ſeveral ſpecies of manufactures, and even the culture of the vine, or olive, are prohibited in the Spaniſh colonies, under ſevere penalties. They muſt truſt entirely to the mother

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country for the objects of primary neceſſity. Their clothes, their furniture, their inſtruments of labour, their luxuries, and even a conſiderable part of the proviſions which they conſume, were imported from Spain. During a great part of the ſixteenth century, Spain, poſſeſſing an extenſive commerce and flouriſhing manufactures, could ſupply with eaſe the growing demands of her colonies from her own ſtores. The produce of their mines and plantations was given in exchange for theſe: but all that the colonies received, as well as all that they gave, was conveyed in Spaniſh bottoms; no veſſel belonging to the colonies was ever permitted to carry the commodities of America to Europe: even the commercial intercourſe of one colony with another was either abſolutely prohibited, or limited by many jealous reſtrictions. All that America yields flows into the ports of Spain; all that it conſumes muſt iſſue from them. No foreigner can enter its colonies without expreſs permiſſion; no veſſel of any foreign nation is received into their harbours; and the pains of death, with confiſcation of moveables, are denounced againſt every inhabitant who preſumes to trade with them. Thus the colonies are kept in a ſtate of perpetual pupillage; and by the introduction of this commercial dependence, a refinement in policy, of which Spain ſet the firſt example to the European nations, the ſupremacy of the parent ſtate hath been maintained over remote colonies during more than two centuries and a half.

Such are the maxims to which the Spaniſh monarchs ſeem to have attended in forming their new ſettlements in America: but they could not plant with the ſame rapidity that they had deſtroyed; and, from many concurring cauſes, their progreſs has been extremely ſlow in filling up the immenſe void which their devaſtation had occaſioned. Migration and population has been ſo much damped, that ſixty years after the diſcovery of the new world, the number of Spaniards, in all its provinces, is computed not to have exceeded fifteen thouſand.

The mode in which property was diſtributed in the Spaniſh colonies, and the regulations eſtabliſhed with reſpect to the tranſmiſſion of it, whether by deſcent or by ſale, were extremely unfavourable to population. In order to promote a rapid increaſe of people in any new ſettlement, property in land ought to be divided into ſmall ſhares, and the alienation of it ſhould be rendered extremely eaſy. But the rapaciouſneſs of the Spaniſh conquerors of the new world paid no regard to this fundamental maxim of policy; and, as they

poſſeſſed power, which enabled them to gratify the utmoſt extravagance of their wiſhes, many ſeized diſtricts of great extent, and held them as *encomiendas*. By degrees they obtained the privilege of converting a part of theſe into mayoraſgos, a ſpecies of fief, introduced into the Spaniſh ſyſtem of feudal juriſprudence, which can neither be divided nor alienated. Thus a great portion of landed property, under this rigid form of entail, is withheld from circulation, and deſcends from father to ſon unimproved, and of little value either to the proprietor or to the community.

To this we may add, that the ſupport of the enormous and expenſive fabric of their eccleſiaſtical eſtabliſhment has been a burden on the Spaniſh colonies, which has retarded the progreſs of population and induſtry. The payment of tythes is a heavy tax on induſtry; and if the exaction of them be not regulated and circumſcribed by the wiſdom of the civil magiſtrate, it becomes intolerable and ruinous: but, inſtead of any reſtraint on the claims of eccleſiaſtics, the inconſiderate zeal of the Spaniſh legiſlators admitted them into America in their full extent, and at once impoſed on their infant colonies a burden which is in no ſlight degree oppreſſive to ſociety, even in its moſt improved ſtate.

By the famous regulations of Charles V. in 1542, the high pretenſions of the conquerors of the new world, who conſidered its inhabitants as ſlaves, to whoſe ſervice they had acquired a full right of property, were finally abrogated. From that period the Indians have been reputed freemen, and entitled to the *privileges* of *ſubjects*. When admitted into this rank, it was *deemed juſt*, that they ſhould contribute towards the ſupport and improvement of the ſociety which had adopted them as members. But as no conſiderable benefit could be expected from the voluntary efforts of men unacquainted with regular induſtry, and averſe to labour, the court of Spain found it neceſſary to fix and ſecure, by proper regulations, what it *thought* reaſonable to exact from them. With this view, an annual tax was impoſed upon every male from the age of eighteen to fifty; and at the ſame time, the nature as well as the extent of the ſervices which they might be required to perform were aſcertained with preciſion. This tribute varies in different provinces; but if we take that paid in New-Spain as a medium, its annual amount is nearly four ſhillings a head. Every Indian is either an immediate vaſſal of the crown, or depends upon ſome ſubject to whom the diſtrict in which he reſides has been granted for a limited time, under the denomination

nomination of an *encomienda*. In the former caſe, about three-fourths of the tax is paid into the royal treaſury; in the latter, the ſame proportion of it belongs to the holder of the grant.

The benefit ariſing from the ſervices of the Indians accrues either to the crown, or to the holder of the *encomienda*, according to the ſame rule obſerved in the payment of tribute: thoſe ſervices, however, which can now be legally exacted, are very different from the taſks originally impoſed upon the Indians. The nature of the work which they muſt perform is defined, and a recompence is granted for their labour. The ſtated ſervices demanded of the Indians may be divided into two branches: they are either employed in works of primary neceſſity, without which ſociety cannot ſubſiſt comfortably, or are compelled to labour in the mines, from which the Spaniſh colonies derive their chief value and importance. In conſequence of the former, they are obliged to aſſiſt in the culture of maize and other grain of neceſſary conſumption; in tending cattle; in erecting edifices of public utility; in building bridges, and in forming high roads; but they cannot be conſtrained to labour in raiſing vines, olives and ſugar-canes, or any ſpecies of cultivation, which has for its object the gratification of luxury or commercial profit. In conſequence of the latter, the Indians are compelled to undertake the more unpleaſant taſk, of extracting ore from the bowels of the earth, and of refining it by ſucceſſive proceſſes, no leſs unwholeſome than operoſe.

The mode of exacting both theſe ſervices is the ſame. The Indians are called out ſucceſſively in diviſions, termed Mitas, and no perſon can be compelled to go but in his turn. In Peru, the number called out muſt not exceed the ſeventh part of the inhabitants in any diſtrict. In New-Spain, where the Indians are more numerous, it is fixed at four in the hundred. During what time the labour of ſuch Indians as are employed in agriculture continues, we have not been able to learn: but in Peru, each mita, or diviſion, deſtined for the mines, remains there ſix months; and while engaged in this ſervice, a labourer never receives leſs than two ſhillings a day, and often earns more than double that ſum. No Indian, reſiding at a greater diſtance than thirty miles from a mine, is included in the mita, or diviſion employed in working it; nor are the inhabitants of the low country compelled to remove from that warm climate to the cold elevated regions where minerals abound.

The Indians who live in the principal towns are entirely ſubject to the Spaniſh laws and magiſtrates, but in their own villages they are governed by caziques, ſome of whom are the deſcendants of their ancient lords, others are named by the Spaniſh viceroys. Theſe regulate the petty affairs of the people under them, according to maxims tranſmitted to them by tradition from their anceſtors. A certain portion of the reſerved fourth of the annual tribute is deſtined for the ſalary of the caziques and protectors; another is applied to the maintenance of the clergy employed in the inſtruction of the Indians. Another part ſeems to be appropriated for the uſe of the Indians themſelves, and is applied for the payment of their tribute in years of famine, or when a particular diſtrict is affected by any extraordinary local calamity. Beſides this, proviſion is made by various laws, that hoſpitals ſhall be founded in every new ſettlement for the reception of Indians. Such hoſpitals have accordingly been erected, both for the indigent and infirm, in Lima, in Cuzco, and in Mexico, where the Indians, on the whole, may be ſaid to be treated with tenderneſs and humanity. Such are the leading principles in the juriſprudence and policy by which the Indians are now governed in the provinces belonging to Spain.

Together with the form of civil government in the Spaniſh colonies, the peculiarities in their eccleſiaſtical conſtitution merit conſideration. Notwithſtanding the ſuperſtitious veneration with which the Spaniards are devoted to the holy ſee, the vigilant and jealous policy of Ferdinand early prompted him to take precautions againſt the introduction of the papal dominion into America. With this view, he ſolicited Alexander VI. for a grant to the crown of the tythes in all the newly-diſcovered countries, which he obtained on condition of his making proviſion for the religious inſtruction of the natives. Soon after Julius II. conferred on him, and his ſucceſſors, the right of patronage, and the abſolute diſpoſal of all eccleſiaſtical benefices there. In conſequence of thoſe grants, the Spaniſh monarchs have become in effect the heads of the American church: in them the adminiſtration of its revenues is veſted, and their nomination of perſons to ſupply vacant benefices is inſtantly confirmed by the pope. Thus, in all Spaniſh America, authority of every ſpecies centers in the crown: there no colliſion is known between ſpiritual and temporal juriſdiction; the king is the only ſuperior, his name alone is heard of, and no dependence upon any foreign power has been introduced.

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The hierarchy is eſtabliſhed in the ſame form as in Spain, with its full train of archbiſhops, biſhops, deans and other dignitaries. The inferior clergy are divided into three claſſes, under the denomination of curas, doctrineros and miſſioneros. The firſt are pariſh prieſts in thoſe parts of the country where the Spaniards have ſettled; the ſecond have the charge of ſuch diſtricts as are inhabited by Indians ſubjected to the Spaniſh government, and living under its protection; the third are employed in inſtructing and converting thoſe fiercer tribes which diſdain ſubmiſſion to the Spaniſh yoke, and live in remote or inacceſſible regions, to which the Spaniſh arms have not penetrated. So numerous are the eccleſiaſtics of all thoſe various orders, and ſuch the profuſe liberality with which many of them are endowed, that the revenues of the church in America are immenſe.

In viewing the ſtate of colonies, where not only the number but influence of eccleſiaſtics is ſo great, the character of this powerful body is an object that merits particular attention. A conſiderable part of the ſecular clergy in Mexico and Peru are natives of Spain. As perſons long accuſtomed, by their education, to the retirement and indolence of academic life are more incapable of active enterpriſe, and leſs diſpoſed to ſtrike into new paths, than any order of men, the eccleſiaſtical adventurers by whom the American church is recruited, are commonly ſuch as, from merit or rank in life, have little proſpect of ſucceſs in their own country. Accordingly, the ſecular prieſts in the new world are ſtill leſs diſtinguiſhed than their brethren in Spain for literary accompliſhments of any ſpecies; and though, by the ample proviſion which has been made for the American church, many of its members enjoy the eaſe and independence which are favourable to the cultivation of ſcience, the body of ſecular clergy has hardly, during two centuries and a half, produced one author whoſe works convey ſuch uſeful information, or poſſeſs ſuch a degree of merit, as to be ranked among thoſe which attract the attention of enlightened nations. But the greateſt part of the eccleſiaſtics in the Spaniſh ſettlements are regulars. The firſt attempt to inſtruct and convert the Americans was made by monks, and, as ſoon as the conqueſt of any province was completed, and its eccleſiaſtical eſtabliſhment began to aſſume ſome form, the popes permitted the miſſionaries of the four mendicant orders, as a reward for their ſervices, to accept of parochial charges in America, to perform all ſpiritual functions, and to receive the tythes and other emoluments of the benefice, without depending on the juriſdiction

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of the biſhop of the dioceſe, or being ſubject to his cenſures. In conſequence of this, a new career of uſefulneſs, as well as new objects of ambition, preſented themſelves. Whenever a call is made for a freſh ſupply of miſſionaries, men of the moſt ardent and aſpiring minds, impatient under the reſtraint of a cloiſter, weary of its inſipid uniformity, and fatigued with the irkſome repetition of its frivolous functions, offer their ſervice with eagerneſs, and repair to the new world in queſt of liberty and diſtinction: nor do they purſue diſtinction without ſucceſs; the higheſt eccleſiaſtical honours, as well as the moſt lucrative preferments in Mexico and Peru, are often in the hands of regulars; and it is chiefly to the monaſtic orders that the Americans are indebted for any portion of ſcience that is cultivated among them. They are almoſt the only Spaniſh eccleſiaſtics from whom we have received any accounts, either of the civil or natural hiſtory of the various provinces in America.

From this brief ſurvey, ſome idea may be formed of the interior ſtate of the Spaniſh colonies. The ſyſtem of commercial intercourſe between them comes next in order to be explained. If the dominions of Spain in the new world had been of ſuch moderate extent, as bore a due proportion to the parent ſtate, the progreſs of her colonizing might have been attended with the ſame benefit as that of other nations: but when, in leſs than half a century, her inconſiderate rapacity had ſeized on countries larger than all Europe, her inability to fill ſuch vaſt regions with a number of inhabitants ſufficient for the cultivation of them, was ſo obvious, as to give a wrong direction to all the efforts of the coloniſts. They did not form compact ſettlements, where induſtry, circumſcribed within proper limits, both in its views and operations, is conducted with that ſober, perſevering ſpirit, which gradually converts whatever is in its poſſeſſion to a proper uſe, and derives thence the greateſt advantage. Inſtead of this, the Spaniards, ſeduced by the boundleſs proſpect which opened to them, divided their poſſeſſions in America into governments of great extent. As their number was too ſmall to attempt the regular culture of the immenſe provinces, which they occupied rather than peopled, they bent their attention to a few objects, that allured them with hopes of ſudden and exorbitant gain, and turned away with contempt from the humbler paths of induſtry, which lead more ſlowly, but with greater certainty, to wealth and increaſe of national ſtrength.

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Of all the methods by which riches may be acquired, that of ſearching for the precious metals is one of the moſt inviting to men, who are either unaccuſtomed to the regular aſſiduity with which the culture of the earth and the operations of commerce muſt be carried on, or who are ſo enterpriſing and rapacious as not to be ſatisfied with the gradual returns of profit which they yield. Accordingly, as ſoon as the ſeveral countries in America were ſubjected to the dominion of Spain, this was almoſt the only method of acquiring wealth which occurred to the adventurers by whom they were conquered. Such provinces of the continent as did not allure them to ſettle, by the proſpect of their affording gold and ſilver, were totally neglected. Thoſe in which they met with a diſappointment of the ſanguine expectations they had formed were abandoned. Even the value of the iſlands, the firſt-fruits of their diſcoveries, and the firſt object of their attention, ſunk ſo much in their eſtimation, when the mines which had been opened in them were exhauſted, that they were deſerted by many of the planters, and left to be occupied by more induſtrious poſſeſſors. All crowded to Mexico and Peru, where the quantities of gold and ſilver found among the natives, who ſearched for them with little induſtry and leſs ſkill, promiſed an unexhauſted ſtore, as the recompence of more intelligent and perſevering efforts.

During ſeveral years, the ardour of their reſearches was kept up by hope rather than ſucceſs. At length, the rich ſilver mines of Potoſi, in Peru, were accidentally diſcovered in the year 1545, by an Indian, as he was clambering up the mountain in purſuit of a llama which had ſtrayed from his flock. Soon after the mines of Sacotecas, in New-Spain, little inferior to the other in value, were opened. From that time, ſucceſſive diſcoveries have been made in both colonies, and ſilver mines are now ſo numerous, that the working of them, and of ſome few mines of gold in the provinces of Tierra Firmé, and the new kingdom of Granada, has become the capital occupation of the Spaniards, and is reduced into a ſyſtem no leſs complicated than intereſting. To deſcribe the nature of the various ores, the mode of extracting them from the bowels of the earth, and to explain the ſeveral proceſſes by which the metals are ſeparated from the ſubſtances with which they are mingled, either by the action of fire, or the attractive powers of mercury, is the province of the natural philoſopher or chymiſt, rather than of the hiſtorian.

The exuberant profuſion with which the mountains of the new world poured forth their treaſures aſtoniſhed mankind, who had been hitherto accuſtomed to receive a penurious ſupply of the precious metals, from the more ſcanty ſtores contained in the mines of the ancient hemiſphere. According to principles of computation, which appear to be extremely moderate, the quantity of gold and ſilver that has been regularly entered in the ports of Spain, is equal in value to four millions ſterling annually, reckoning from the year 1492, in which America was diſcovered, to the preſent time. Immenſe as this ſum is, the Spaniſh writers contend, that as much more ought to be added to it, in conſideration of treaſure which has been extracted from the mines, and imported fraudulently into Spain without paying duty to the king. By this account, Spain has drawn from the new world a ſupply of wealth, amounting to more than two thouſand millions of pounds ſterling.

The mines, which have yielded this amazing quantity of treaſure, are not worked at the expenſe of the crown, or of the public. In order to encourage private adventurers, the perſon who diſcovers and works a new vein is entitled to the property of it. Upon laying his claim to ſuch a diſcovery before the governor of the province, a certain extent of land is meaſured off, and a certain number of Indians allotted him, under the obligation of his opening the mine within a limited time, and of his paying the cuſtomary duty to the king for what it ſhall produce. Invited by the facility with which ſuch grants are obtained, and encouraged by ſome ſtriking examples of ſucceſs in this line of adventure, not only the ſanguine and the bold, but the timid and diffident, enter upon it with aſtoniſhing ardour. The charms of this purſuit, like the rage for deep play, are ſo bewitching, and take ſuch full poſſeſſion of the mind, as even to give a new bent to the natural temper. Under its influence the cautious become enterpriſing, and the covetous profuſe. Powerful as this charm naturally is, its force is augmented by the arts of an order of men known in Peru by the cant name of *ſearchers*: theſe are commonly perſons of deſperate fortunes, who availing themſelves of ſome ſkill in mineralogy, accompanied with the inſinuating manner and confident pretenſions peculiar to projectors, addreſs the wealthy and the credulous: by plauſible deſcriptions of the appearances which they have diſcovered of rich veins hitherto unexplored; by producing, when requiſite, ſpecimens of promiſing ore; by affirming, with an impoſing aſſurance, that ſucceſs is certain, and that the

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expenſe muſt be trifling, they ſeldom fail to perſuade; an aſſociation is formed, a ſmall ſum is advanced by each co-partner, the mine is opened, the ſearcher is entruſted with the ſole direction of every operation, unforeſeen difficulties occur, new demands of money are made, but amidſt a ſucceſſion of diſappointments and delays, hope is never extinguiſhed, and the ardour of expectation hardly abates.

Such is the ſpirit that muſt be formed, wherever the active exertions of any ſociety are chiefly employed in working mines of gold and ſilver. No ſpirit is more adverſe to ſuch improvement in agriculture and commerce, as render a nation really opulent.

But in the Spaniſh colonies, government is ſtudious to cheriſh a ſpirit which it ſhould have laboured to depreſs, and by the ſanction of its approbation, augments that inconſiderate credulity which has turned the active induſtry of Mexico and Peru into ſuch an improper channel. To this may be imputed the ſlender progreſs which Spaniſh America has made during two centuries and a half, either in uſeful manufactures, or in thoſe lucrative branches of cultivation which furniſh the colonies of other nations with their ſtaple commodities.

As the activity and enterpriſe of the Spaniards originally took this direction, it is now ſo difficult to bend them a different way, that although from various cauſes, the gain of working mines is much decreaſed, the faſcination continues, and almoſt every perſon who takes any active part in the commerce of New-Spain or Peru, is ſtill engaged in ſome adventure of this kind.

But though mines are the chief object of the Spaniards, and the precious metals which theſe yield form the principal article in their commerce with America, the fertile countries which they poſſeſs there abound with other commodities of ſuch value or ſcarcity, as to attract a conſiderable degree of attention. Cochineal is a production almoſt peculiar to New-Spain, of ſuch demand in commerce, that the ſale is always certain, and it yields ſuch profit as amply rewards the labour and care employed in rearing the curious inſects of which this valuable drug is compoſed, and preparing it for the market. Quinquina, or jeſuit's bark, the moſt ſalutary ſimple, perhaps, and of moſt reſtorative virtue, that Providence has made known unto man, is found only in Peru, to which it affords a lucrative branch of commerce. The indigo of Guatimala is ſuperior in quality to that of any province in America, and cultivated to a conſiderable extent. Cacoa, though not peculiar to the

Spaniſh colonies, attains to its higheſt ſtate of perfection there, and from the great conſumption of chocolate in Europe, as well as in America, is a valuable commodity. The tobacco of Cuba, of more exquiſite flavour than any brought from the new world; the ſugar raiſed in that iſland, in Hiſpaniola, and in New-Spain, together with drugs of various kinds, may be mentioned among the natural productions of America, which enrich the Spaniſh commerce. To theſe muſt be added, an article of no inconſiderable account, the exportation of hides, for which, as well as for many of thoſe enumerated, the Spaniards are more indebted to the wonderful fertility of the country than to their own foreſight and induſtry. The domeſtic animals of Europe, particularly horned cattle, have multiplied in the new world with a rapidity which almoſt exceeds belief. A few years after the Spaniards ſettled there, the herds of tame cattle became ſo numerous, that their proprietors, as we have before obſerved, reckoned them by thouſands. Leſs attention being paid to them as they continued to increaſe, they were ſuffered to run wild, and ſpreading over a country of boundleſs extent, under a mild climate, and covered with rich paſture, their number became immenſe. They range over the vaſt plains which extend from Buenos Ayres towards the Andes, in herds of thirty or forty thouſand; and the unlucky traveller who once falls in among them, may proceed ſeveral days before he can diſentangle himſelf from among the crowd that covers the face of the earth, and ſeems to have no end. They are hardly leſs numerous in New-Spain, and in ſeveral other provinces; they are killed merely for the ſake of their hides; and the ſlaughter at certain ſeaſons is great, that the ſtench of the carcaſes which are left in the field would infect the air if large packs of wild dogs, and vaſt flocks of gallinazos, or American vultures, the moſt voracious of all the feathered kind, did not inſtantly devour them. The number of thoſe hides exported in every fleet to Europe is very great, and is a lucrative branch of commerce.

Almoſt all theſe may be conſidered as ſtaple commodities peculiar to America, and different, if we except that laſt mentioned, from the productions of Spain.

When the importation into Spain of thoſe various articles from her colonies firſt became active and conſiderable, her interior induſtry and manufactures were in a ſtate ſo proſperous, that with the product of theſe ſhe was able both to purchaſe the commodities of the new world, and to anſwer its growing demands. Under the reigns of Fer-

Ferdinand and Iſabella, and Charles V. Spain was one of the moſt induſtrious countries in Europe; her manufactures in wool, and flax, and ſilk, were ſo extenſive, as not only to furniſh what was ſufficient for her own conſumption, but to afford a ſurplus for exportation. When a market for them, formerly unknown, and to which ſhe alone had acceſs, opened in America, ſhe had recourſe to her domeſtic ſtore, and found there an abundant ſupply. This new employment muſt naturally have added vivacity to the ſpirit of induſtry; nouriſhed and invigorated by it, the manufactures, the population, and wealth of Spain might have gone on increaſing in the ſame proportion with the growth of her colonies; but various cauſes prevented this. The ſame thing happens to nations as to individuals. Wealth, which flows in gradually, and with moderate increaſe, feeds and nouriſhes that activity which is friendly to commerce, and calls it forth into vigorous and well-conducted exertions; but when opulence pours in ſuddenly, and with too full a ſtream, it overturns all ſober plans of induſtry, and brings along with it a taſte for what is wild and extravagant, and daring in buſineſs or in action. Such was the great and ſudden augmentation of power and revenue that the poſſeſſion of America brought into Spain; and ſome ſymptoms of its pernicious influence upon the political operations of that monarchy ſoon began to appear.

When Philip II. aſcended the Spaniſh throne, with talents far inferior to thoſe of his father, and remittances from the colonies became a regular and conſiderable branch of revenue, the fatal operation of this rapid change in the ſtate of the kingdom, both on the monarch and his people, was at once conſpicuous. Philip, poſſeſſing that ſpirit of unceaſing aſſiduity, which often characteriſes the ambition of men of moderate talents, entertained ſuch an high opinion of his own reſources, that he thought nothing too arduous for him to undertake; ſhut up himſelf in the ſolitude of the eſcurial, he troubled and annoyed all the nations around him. He waged open war with the Dutch and Engliſh; he encouraged and aided a rebellious faction in France; he conquered Portugal, and maintained armies and garriſons in Italy, Africa, and both the Indies. By ſuch a multiplicity of great and complicated operations, purſued with ardour during the courſe of a long reign, Spain was drained both of men and money. Under the weak adminiſtration of his ſucceſſor, Philip III. the vigour of the nation continued to decreaſe, and ſunk into the loweſt decline, when the inconſiderate bigotry of that monarch expelled at once near a million

a million of his moſt induſtrious ſubjects, at the very time when the exhauſted ſtate of the kingdom required ſome extraordinary exertion of political wiſdom to augment its numbers, and to revive its ſtrength. Early in the ſeventeenth century, Spain felt ſuch a diminution in the number of her people, that from inability to recruit her armies, ſhe was obliged to contract her operations; her flouriſhing manufactures were fallen into decay; her fleets, which had been the terror of all Europe, were ruined; her extenſive foreign commerce was loſt; the trade between different parts of her own dominions was interrupted, and the ſhips which attempted to carry it on, were taken and plundered by enemies whom ſhe once deſpiſed. Even agriculture, the primary object of induſtry in every proſperous ſtate, was neglected, and one of the moſt fertile countries in Europe hardly raiſed what was ſufficient for the ſupport of its own inhabitants.

In proportion as the population and manufactures of Spain declined, the demands of her colonies continued to increaſe. The Spaniards, like their monarchs, intoxicated with the wealth which poured in annually upon them, deſerted the paths of induſtry, to which they had been accuſtomed, and repaired with eagerneſs to thoſe regions from whence this opulence iſſued. By this rage of emigration, another drain was opened, and the ſtrength of the colonies augmented by exhauſting that of the mother country.

Spain, thinned of people, and decreaſing in induſtry, was unable to ſupply the growing demands of her colonies; ſhe had recourſe to her neighbours; the manufactures of the Low Countries, of England, of France, and of Italy, which her wants called into exiſtence, or animated with new vivacity, furniſhed in abundance whatever ſhe required. In vain did the fundamental law, concerning the excluſion of foreigners from trade with America, oppoſe this innovation. Neceſſity, more powerful than any ſtatute, defeated its operations, and conſtrained the Spaniards themſelves to concur in eluding it. The Engliſh, the French, and Dutch, relying on the fidelity and honour of Spaniſh merchants, who lend their names to cover the deceit, continue to ſend out their manufactures to America, and received the exorbitant price for which they are ſold there, either in ſpecie, or in the rich commodities of the new world. Neither the dread of danger, nor the allurement of profit, ever induced a Spaniſh factor to betray or defraud the perſon who confided in him; and that probity, which is the pride and diſtinction of the nation, contributes to its ruin. The treaſure of the new world may therefore be ſaid not to belong to Spain; before it

reaches

reaches Europe, it is anticipated as the price of goods purchaſed from foreigners.

Thus the poſſeſſions of Spain in America have not proved a ſource of population and of wealth to her, in the ſame manner as thoſe of other nations. In the countries of Europe, where the ſpirit of induſtry ſubſiſts in full vigour, every perſon ſettled in ſuch colonies as are ſimilar in their ſituation to thoſe of Spain, is ſuppoſed to give employment to three or four at home in ſupplying his wants. But wherever the mother country cannot afford this ſupply, every emigrant may be conſidered as a citizen loſt to the community, and ſtrangers muſt reap all the benefit of anſwering his demands. Such has been the internal ſtate of Spain from the cloſe of the ſixteenth century, and ſuch her inability to ſupply the growing wants of her colonies.

The fatal effects of the diſproportion between their demands, and her capacity of anſwering them, have been much increaſed by the mode in which Spain has endeavoured to regulate the intercourſe between the mother country and the colonies. It is from her idea of monopolizing the trade with America, and debarring her ſubjects there from any communication with foreigners, that all her jealous and ſyſtematic arrangements have ariſen; theſe are ſo ſingular in their nature and conſequences, as to merit a particular explanation. In order to ſecure the monopoly at which ſhe aimed, Spain did not veſt the trade with her colonies in an excluſive company, a plan which has been adopted by nations more commercial, and at a period when mercantile policy was an object of greater attention, and ought to have been better underſtood. The Dutch gave up the whole trade with their colonies, both in the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, to excluſive companies. The Engliſh, the French, and the Danes, have imitated their example with reſpect to the Eaſt-Indian commerce, and the two former have laid a ſimilar reſtraint upon ſome branches of their trade with the new world. The wit of man cannot, perhaps, deviſe a method for checking the progreſs of induſtry and population in a new colony more effectual than this. The intereſt of the colony, and of the excluſive company, muſt in every point be diametrically oppoſite; and as the latter poſſeſſes ſuch advantages in this unequal conteſt, that it can preſcribe at pleaſure the terms of intercourſe, the former muſt not only buy dear and ſell cheap, but muſt ſuffer the mortification of having the increaſe of its ſurplus ſtock diſcou-

raged by thoſe very perſons to whom alone it can diſpoſe of its productions.*

Spain, it is probable, was preſerved from falling into this error in policy, by the high ideas which ſhe early formed concerning the riches of the new world. Gold and ſilver were commodities of too high a value to veſt a monopoly of them in private hands. The crown wiſhed to retain the direction of a commerce ſo inviting, and in order to ſecure that, ordained the cargo of every ſhip fitted out for America, to be inſpected by the officers of the Caſa de Contratacion in Seville, before it could receive a licence to make the voyage; and that on its return, a report of the commodities which it brought ſhould be made to the ſame board, before it could be permitted to land them. In conſequence of this regulation, all the trade of Spain with the new world centered originally in the port of Seville, and was gradually brought into a form, in which it has been conducted with little variation from the middle of the ſixteenth century, almoſt to our own times. For the greater ſecurity of the valuable cargoes ſent to America, as well as for the more eaſy prevention of fraud, the commerce of Spain, with its colonies, was carried on by fleets which ſailed under ſtrong convoys; theſe fleets conſiſted of two ſquadrons, one diſtinguiſhed by the name of the galleons, the other by that of the flota, are equipped annually. Formerly they took their departure from Seville, but as the port of Cadiz has been found more commodious, they have ſailed from it ſince the year 1720.

The galleons deſtined to ſupply Terra Firma, and the kingdoms of Peru and Chili, with almoſt every article of luxury or neceſſary conſumption that an opulent people can demand, touch firſt at Carthagena, and then at Porto Bello; to the former, the merchants of Santa Martha, Garaccas, the new kingdom of Granada, and ſeveral other provinces reſort; the latter is the great mart for the rich commerce of Peru and Chili. At the ſeaſon when the galleons are expected, the product of all the mines in theſe two kingdoms, together with their other valuable commodities, is tranſported by ſea to Panama; from thence, as ſoon as the appearance of the fleet from Europe is announced, they are conveyed acroſs the iſthmus, partly on mules, and partly down the river Chagre to Porto Bello. This paltry village, the climate of which, from the pernicious union of

* Smith's Inquiry, ii. 171.

exceſſive

exceſſive heat, continual moiſture, and the putrid exhalations ariſing from a rank ſoil, is more fatal to life than any perhaps in the known world, is immediately filled with people. From being the reſidence of a few negroes and mulattoes, and of a miſerable garriſon relieved every three months, Porto Bello aſſumes ſuddenly a very different aſpect, and its ſtreets are crowded with opulent merchants from every corner of Peru, and the adjacent provinces; a fair is opened, the wealth of America is exchanged for the manufactures of Europe; and during its preſcribed term, as we have before obſerved, the richeſt traffic on the face of the earth is begun and finiſhed, with that ſimplicity of tranſaction and that unbounded confidence which accompanies extenſive commerce. The flota holds its courſe to Vera Cruz. The treaſures and commodities of New-Spain, and the depending provinces, which were depoſited at Puebla de los Angeles, in expectation of its arrival, are carried thither, and the commercial operations of Vera Cruz, conducted in the ſame manner with thoſe of Porto Bello, are inferior to them only in importance and value. Both fleets, as ſoon as they have completed their cargoes from America, rendezvous at the Havannah, and return in company to Europe.

The trade of Spain with her colonies, while thus fettered and reſtricted, came neceſſarily to be conducted with the ſame ſpirit, and upon the ſame principles as that of an excluſive company. Being confined to a ſingle port, it was of courſe thrown into a few hands, and almoſt the whole of it was gradually engroſſed by a ſmall number of wealthy houſes, formerly in Seville and now in Cadiz. Theſe, by combinations which they can eaſily form, may altogether prevent that competition which preſerves commodities at their natural price; and by acting in concert, to which they are prompted by their mutual intereſt, they may raiſe or lower the value of them at pleaſure; in conſequence of this, the price of European goods in America is always high, and often exorbitant. A hundred, two hundred, and and even three hundred per cent. are profits not uncommon in the commerce of Spain with her colonies. From the ſame ingroſſing ſpirit it frequently happens, that traders of the ſecond order, whoſe warehouſes do not contain a complete aſſortment of commodities for the American market, cannot purchaſe from the more opulent merchants ſuch goods as they want, at a lower price than that for which they are ſold in the colonies. With the ſame vigilant jealouſy that an excluſive company guards againſt the intruſion of the free

trader, whoſe overgrown monopoliſts endeavour to check the progreſs of every one whoſe incroachments they dread.* This reſtraint of the American commerce to one port, not only affects its domeſtic ſtate, but limits its foreign operations. A monopoliſt may acquire more, and certainly will hazard leſs by a confined trade which yields exorbitant profit, than by an extenſive commerce in which he receives only a moderate return of gain. It is often his intereſt not to enlarge, but circumſcribe the ſphere of his activity, and inſtead of calling forth more vigorous exertions of commercial induſtry, it may be the object of his attention to check and ſet bounds to them. By ſome ſuch maxim the mercantile policy of Spain ſeems to have regulated its intercourſe with America. Inſtead of furniſhing the colonies with European goods in ſuch quantity as might render both the price and the profit moderate; the merchants of Seville and Cadiz ſeem to have ſupplied them with a ſparing hand, that the eagerneſs of competition amongſt cuſtomers obliged to purchaſe in a ſcanty market, might enable the Spaniſh factors to diſpoſe of their cargoes with exorbitant gain. About the middle of the laſt century, when the excluſive trade to America from Seville was in its moſt flouriſhing ſtate, the burden of the two united ſquadrons of the galleons and flota did not exceed twenty-ſeven thouſand five hundred tons. The ſupply which ſuch a fleet could carry, muſt have been very inadequate to the demands of thoſe populous and extenſive colonies, which depended upon it for all the luxuries, and many of the neceſſaries of life.

Spain early became ſenſible of her declenſion from her former proſperity, and many reſpectable and virtuous citizens employed their thoughts in deviſing methods for reviving the decaying induſtry and commerce of their country. From the violence of the remedies propoſed, it is evident how deſperate and fatal the malady appeared.

Beſides wild projects, many ſchemes, well-digeſted and beneficial, were ſuggeſted; but under the feeble monarchs with whom the reign of the Auſtrian line in Spain cloſed, incapacity and indeciſion are conſpicuous in every department of government. Inſtead of taking for their model the active adminiſtration of Charles V. they affected to imitate the cautious procraſtinating wiſdom of Philip II. and deſtitute of his talents, they deliberated perpetually, but determined nothing.

* Smith's Inquiry, ii. 171.

No

No remedy was applied to the evils under which the national commerce, domeſtic as well as foreign, languiſhed. Theſe evils continued to increaſe, and Spain, with dominions more extenſive and more opulent than any European ſtate, poſſeſſed neither vigour, nor money, nor induſtry. At length the violence of a great national convulſion rouſed the ſlumbering genius of Spain. The efforts of the two contending parties in the civil war, kindled by the diſpute concerning the ſucceſſion of the crown at the beginning of this century, called forth, in ſome degree, the ancient ſpirit and vigour of the nation.

As ſoon as the Bourbons obtained quiet poſſeſſion of the throne, they diſcerned this change in the ſpirit of the people, and took advantage of it. It was the firſt object of Philip V. to ſuppreſs an innovation which had crept in during the courſe of the war, and had overturned the whole ſyſtem of the Spaniſh commerce with America. The Engliſh and Dutch, by their ſuperiority in naval power, having acquired ſuch command of the ſea, as to cut off all intercourſe between Spain and her colonies; Spain, in order to furniſh her ſubjects in America with thoſe neceſſaries of life, without which they could not exiſt, and as the only means of receiving from thence any part of their treaſure, departed ſo far from the uſual rigour of its maxims, as to open the trade with Peru to her allies the French. The merchants of St. Malo, to whom Louis XIV. granted the privilege of this lucrative commerce, engaged in it with vigour, and carried it on upon principles very different from thoſe of the Spaniards. They ſupplied Peru with European commodities at a moderate price, and not in ſtinted quantity. The goods which they imported were conveyed to every province of Spaniſh-America in ſuch abundance as had never been known in any former period. If this intercourſe had been continued, the exportation of European commodities from Spain muſt have ceaſed, and the dependence of the colonies on the mother country have been at an end. The moſt peremptory injunctions were therefore iſſued, prohibiting the admiſſion of foreign veſſels into any port of Peru or Chili, and a Spaniſh ſquadron was employed to clear the South ſea of intruders, whoſe aid was no longer neceſſary.

But though on the ceſſation of the war, which was terminated by the treaty of Utrecht, Spain obtained relief from one incroachment on her commercial ſyſtem, ſhe was expoſed to another, which ſhe deemed hardly leſs pernicious. As an inducement that might prevail

with Queen Anne to conclude a peace, which France and Spain deſired with equal ardour, Philip V. not only conveyed to Great-Britain the Aſſiento, or contract for ſupplying the Spaniſh colonies with negroes, which had formerly been enjoyed by France, but granted it the more extraordinary privilege of ſending annually to the fair of Porto Bello, a ſhip of five hundred tons, laden with European commodities. In conſequence of this, Britiſh factories were eſtabliſhed at Carthagena, Panama, Vera Cruz, Buenos Ayres, and other Spaniſh ſettlements. The veil with which Spain had hitherto covered the ſtate and tranſactions of her colonies was removed. The agents of a rival nation, reſiding in the towns of moſt extenſive trade, and of chief reſort, had the beſt opportunities of becoming acquainted with the interior condition of the American provinces, of obſerving their ſtated and occaſional wants, and of knowing what commodities might be imported into them with the greateſt advantage. In conſequence of information ſo authentic and expeditious, the merchants of Jamaica and other Engliſh colonies who traded to the Spaniſh main, were enabled to aſſort and proportion their cargoes ſo exactly to the demands of the market, that the contraband commerce was carried on with a facility, and to an extent unknown in any former period. This, however, was not the moſt fatal conſequence of the Aſſiento to the trade of Spain. The agents of the Britiſh South ſea company, under cover of the importation which they were authoriſed to make by the ſhip ſent annually to Porto Bello, poured in their commodities on the Spaniſh continent, without limitation or reſtraint. Inſtead of a ſhip of five hundred tons, as ſtipulated in the treaty, they uſually employed one which exceeded nine hundred tons in burden; ſhe was accompanied by two or three ſmaller veſſels, which mooring in ſome neighbouring creek, ſupplied her clandeſtinely with freſh bales of goods, to replace ſuch as were ſold. The inſpectors of the fair, and officers of the revenue, gained by exorbitant preſents, connived at the fraud. Thus, partly by the operations of the company, and partly by the activity of private interlopers, almoſt the whole trade of Spaniſh-America was ingroſſed by foreigners. The immenſe commerce of the galleons, formerly the pride of Spain, and the envy of other nations, ſunk to nothing, and the ſquadron itſelf reduced from fifteen thouſand to two thouſand tons, ſerved hardly any purpoſe but to fetch home the royal revenue ariſing from the fifth on ſilver.

While

While Spain obſerved thoſe incroachments, and felt their pernicious effects, it was impoſſible not to make ſome effort to reſtrain them. Her firſt expedient was to ſtation ſhips of force, under the appellation of guarda coſtas, upon the coaſts of thoſe provinces, to which interlopers moſt frequently reſorted. Some check was by this means given to the progreſs of the contraband trade, though in dominions ſo extenſive, and ſo acceſſible by ſea, hardly any number of cruiſers was ſufficient to guard againſt its inroads in every quarter. This interruption of an intercourſe which had been carried on with ſo much facility, that the merchants in the Britiſh colonies were accuſtomed to conſider it almoſt as an allowed branch of commerce, excited murmurs and complaints. Theſe authoriſed in ſome meaſure, and rendered more intereſting, by ſeveral unjuſtifiable acts of violence committed by the captains of the Spaniſh guarda coſtas, precipitated Great-Britain into a war with Spain, in conſequence of which the latter obtained a final releaſe from the Aſſiento, and was left at liberty to regulate the commerce of her colonies, without being reſtrained by any engagement with a foreign power.

As the formidable incroachments of the Engliſh on the American trade had diſcovered to the Spaniards the vaſt conſumption of European goods in their colonies, and taught them the advantage of accommodating their importations to the occaſional demand of the various provinces, they perceived the neceſſity of deviſing ſome method of ſupplying their colonies, different from their ancient one, of ſending thither periodical fleets. That mode of communication had been found not only to be uncertain, as the departure of the galleons and flota was ſometimes retarded by various accidents, and often prevented by the wars which raged in Europe; but long experience had ſhewn it to be ill adapted to afford America a regular and timely ſupply of what it wanted. The ſcarcity of European goods in the Spaniſh ſettlements frequently became exceſſive; their price roſe to an enormous height; the vigilant eye of mercantile attention did not fail to obſerve this favourable opportunity, an ample ſupply was poured in by interlopers from the Engliſh, the French, and Dutch iſlands; and when the galleons at length arrived, they found the markets ſo glutted by this illicit commerce, that there was no demand for the commodities with which they were loaded. In order to remedy this, Spain has permitted a conſiderable part of her commerce with America to be carried on by regiſter ſhips. Theſe are fitted out during the intervals between the ſtated ſeaſons when the

galleons

galleons and flota ſail, by merchants in Seville or Cadiz, upon obtaining a licence from the council of the Indies, for which they pay a very high premium, and are deſtined for thoſe ports in America where any extraordinary demand is foreſeen or expected. By this expedient, ſuch a regular ſupply of the commodities, for which there is the greateſt demand, is conveyed to the American market, that the interloper is no longer allured by the ſame proſpect of exceſſive gain, or the people in the colonies urged by the ſame neceſſity to engage in the hazardous adventures of contraband trade.

In proportion as experience manifeſted the advantages of carrying on trade in this mode, the number of regiſter ſhips increaſed, and at length, in the year 1748, the galleons, after having been employed upwards of two centuries, were finally laid aſide. From that period there has been no intercourſe with Chili and Peru but by ſingle ſhips, diſpatched from time to time as occaſion requires, and when the merchants expect a profitable market will open. Theſe ſhips ſail round cape Horn, and convey directly to the ports in the South ſea the productions and manufactures of Europe, for which the people ſettled in thoſe countries were formerly obliged to repair to Porto Bello or Panama. Theſe towns, as has been formerly obſerved, muſt gradually decline, when deprived of that commerce to which they owed their proſperity. This diſadvantage, however, is more than compenſated by the beneficial effects of this new arrangement, as the whole continent of South-America receives new ſupplies of European commodities with ſo much regularity, and in ſuch abundance, as muſt not only contribute greatly to the happineſs, but increaſe the population of all the colonies ſettled there. But as all the regiſter ſhips deſtined for the South ſeas muſt ſtill take their departure from Cadiz, and are obliged to return thither, this branch of the American commerce, even in its new and improved form, continues ſubject to the reſtraints of a ſpecies of monopoly, and feels all the pernicious effects of it.

Among the new taſtes which the people of Europe have acquired, in conſequence of importing the productions of thoſe countries which they conquered in America, that for chocolate is one of the moſt univerſal. The uſe of this liquor, made with a paſte formed of the nut or almond of the cacoa tree, compounded with various ingredients, the Spaniards firſt learned from the Mexicans; and it has appeared to them, and to the other European nations, ſo palatable, ſo nouriſhing, and ſo wholeſome, that it has become a commercial

mercial article of conſiderable importance. The cacoa tree grows ſpontaneouſly in ſeveral parts of the torrid zone, but the nuts of the beſt quality, next to thoſe of Guatimala, on the South ſea, are produced in the rich plains of Caraccas, a province of Terra Firma. In conſequence of this acknowledged ſuperiority in the quality of cacoa in that province, and its communication with the Atlantic, which facilitates the conveyance to Europe, the culture of the cacoa there is more extenſive than in any diſtrict of America. But the Dutch, by the vicinity of their ſettlements in the ſmall iſlands of Curazoa and Buen-Ayre, to the coaſt of Caraccas, gradually engroſſed the greateſt part of the cacoa trade. The traffic with the mother country for this valuable commodity ceaſed almoſt entirely, and ſuch was the ſupine negligence of the Spaniards, or the defects of their commercial arrangements, that they were obliged to receive from the hands of foreigners this production of their own colonies at an exorbitant price. In order to remedy an evil no leſs diſgraceful than pernicious to his ſubjects, Philip V. in the year 1728, granted to a body of merchants an excluſive right to the commerce with Caraccas and Cumana, on condition of their employing, at their own expenſe, a ſufficient number of armed veſſels to clear the coaſt of interlopers. This ſociety, diſtinguiſhed ſometimes by the name of the Company of Guipuſcoa, from the province of Spain in which it is eſtabliſhed, and ſometimes by that of the Company of Caraccas, from the diſtrict of America to which it trades, has carried on its operations with ſuch vigour and ſucceſs, that Spain has recovered an important branch of commerce, which ſhe had ſuffered to be wreſted from her, and is plentifully ſupplied with an article of extenſive conſumption at a moderate price. Not only the parent ſtate, but the colony of Caraccas, has derived great advantages from this inſtitution; for although, at the firſt aſpect, it may appear to be one of thoſe monopolies, whoſe tendency is to check the ſpirit of induſtry, inſtead of calling it forth to new exertions, it has been prevented from operating in this manner by ſeveral ſalutary regulations, framed upon foreſight of ſuch bad effects, and of purpoſe to obviate them. The planters in the Caraccas are not left to depend entirely on the company, either for the importation of European commodities, or the ſale of their own productions. The inhabitants of the Canary iſlands have the privilege of ſending thither annually a regiſterſhip of conſiderable burden; and from Vera Cruz, in New-Spain, a free trade is permitted in every port comprehended in the

charter

charter of the company. In conſequence of this, there is ſuch a competition, that, both with reſpect to what the colonies purchaſe, and what they ſell, the price ſeems to be fixed at its natural and equitable rate. The company has not the power of raiſing the former, or of degrading the latter at pleaſure; and accordingly, ſince it was eſtabliſhed, the increaſe of culture, of population, and of live ſtock, in the province of Caraccas, has been very conſiderable.

While Spain adhered with rigour to her ancient maxims concerning her commerce with America, ſhe was ſo much afraid of opening any channel, by which an illicit trade might find admiſſion into the colonies, that ſhe almoſt ſhut herſelf out from any intercourſe with them, but that which was carried on by her annual fleets. There was no eſtabliſhment for a regular communication of either public or private intelligence between the mother country and its American ſettlements. From the want of this neceſſary inſtitution, the operations of the ſtate, as well as the buſineſs of individuals, were retarded or conducted unſkilfully, and Spain often received from foreigners her firſt information with reſpect to very intereſting events in her own colonies. But though this defect in police was ſenſibly felt, and the remedy for it was obvious, that jealous ſpirit with which the Spaniſh monarchs guarded the excluſive trade, reſtrained them from applying it. At length Charles III. ſurmounted thoſe conſiderations which had deterred his predeceſſors, and in the year 1764 appointed packet-boats to be diſpatched on the firſt day of each month from Corunna to the Havannah or Porto Rico. From thence letters are conveyed in ſmaller veſſels to Vera Cruz and Porto Bello, and tranſmitted by poſt through the kingdoms of Terra Firma, Granada, Peru and New-Spain. With no leſs regularity packet-boats ſail once in two months to Rio de la Plata, for the accommodation of the provinces to the eaſt of the Andes. Thus proviſion is made for a ſpeedy and certain circulation of intelligence throughout the vaſt dominions of Spain, from which equal advantages muſt redound to the political and mercantile intereſt of the kingdom. With this new arrangement, a ſcheme of extending commerce has been more immediately connected. Each of the packet-boats, which are veſſels of ſome conſiderable burden, is allowed to take in half a loading of ſuch commodities as are the product of Spain, and moſt in demand in the ports whither they are bound. In return for theſe they may bring home to Corunna an equal quantity of American productions. This may be conſidered as the firſt relaxations of thoſe rigid laws,

which

which confined the trade with the new world to a ſingle port, and the firſt attempt to admit the reſt of the kingdom to ſome ſhare in it.

It was ſoon followed by one more deciſive. In the year 1765 Charles III. laid open the trade to the windward iſlands, Cuba, Hiſpaniola, Porto-Rico, Margarita and Trinadad, to his ſubjects in every province of Spain. He permitted them to ſail from certain ports in each province, which are ſpecified in the edict, at any ſeaſon, and with whatever cargo they deemed moſt proper, without any other warrant than a ſimple clearance from the cuſtom-houſe of the place whence they took their departure. He releaſed them from the numerous and oppreſſive duties impoſed on goods exported to America, and in place of the whole ſubſtituted a moderate tax of ſix in the hundred on the commodities ſent from Spain. He allowed them to return either to the ſame port, or to any other where they might hope for a more advantageous market, and there to enter the homeward cargo, on payment of the uſual duties. This ample privilege, which at once broke through all the fences which the jealous policy of Spain had been labouring, for two centuries and a half, to throw round its commercial intercourſe with the new world, was ſoon after extended to Louiſiana, and to the provinces of Yucatan and Campeachy.

Still, however, the commercial regulations of Spain, with reſpect to her colonies, are too rigid and ſyſtematical to be carried into complete execution. The legiſlature that loads trade with impoſitions too heavy, or fetters it by reſtrictions too ſevere, defeats its own intention, and is only multiplying the inducements to violate its ſtatutes, and propoſing an high premium to encourage illicit traffic. The Spaniards, both in Europe and America, being circumſcribed in their mutual intercourſe by the jealouſy of the crown, or oppreſſed by its exactions, have their invention continually on the ſtretch how to elude its edicts. The vigilance and ingenuity of private intereſt diſcover means of effecting this, which public wiſdom cannot foreſee, nor public authority prevent. This ſpirit, counteracting that of the laws, pervades the commerce of Spain with America in all its branches, and from the higheſt departments in government deſcends to the loweſt. The very officers appointed to check contraband trade are often employed as inſtruments in carrying it on; and the boards inſtituted to reſtrain and puniſh it, are the channels through which it flows. The king is ſuppoſed, by the moſt intelligent Spaniſh writers,

to be defrauded, by various artifices, of more than one-half of the revenue which he ought to receive from America; and as long as it is the intereſt of ſo many perſons to ſkreen thoſe artifices from detection, the knowledge of them will never reach the throne.

Before we cloſe this account of the Spaniſh trade in America, there remains one detached, but important branch of it, to be mentioned. Soon after his acceſſion to the throne, Philip II. formed a ſcheme of planting a colony in the Philippine iſlands, which had been neglected ſince the time of their diſcovery; and he accompliſhed it by means of an armament fitted out from New-Spain. Manilla, in the iſland of Luconia, was the ſtation choſen for the capital of this new eſtabliſhment. From it an active commercial intercourſe began with the Chineſe, and a conſiderable number of that induſtrious people, allured by the proſpect of gain, ſettled in the Philippine iſlands under the Spaniſh protection: they ſupplied the colony ſo amply with all the valuable productions and manufactures of the Eaſt, as enabled it to open a trade with America, by a courſe of navigation the longeſt from land to land on our globe. In the infancy of this trade it was carried on with Callao, on the coaſt of Peru; but experience having diſcovered the impropriety of fixing upon that as the port of communication with Manilla, the ſtaple of the commerce between the eaſt and weſt was removed from Callao to Acapulco, on the coaſt of New-Spain.

After various arrangements, it has been brought into a regular form: one or two ſhips depart annually from Acapulco, which are permitted to carry out ſilver to the amount of five hundred thouſand peſos, but they have hardly any thing elſe of value on board; in return for which, they bring back ſpices, drugs, china and japan wares, calicoes, chintz, muſlins, ſilks, and every precious article, with which the benignity of the climate, or the ingenuity of its people, has enabled the Eaſt to ſupply the reſt of the world. For ſome time the merchants of Peru were admitted to participate in this traffic, and might ſend annually a ſhip to Acapulco to wait the arrival of the veſſels from Manilla, and receive a proportional ſhare of the commodities which they imported. At length, the Peruvians were excluded from this trade by moſt rigorous edicts, and all the commodities from the Eaſt reſerved ſolely for the conſumption of New-Spain.

In conſequence of this indulgence, the inhabitants of that country enjoy advantages unknown in the other Spaniſh colonies. The manufactures,

manufactures of the Eaſt are not only more ſuited to a warm climate, and more ſhowy than thoſe of Europe, but can be ſold at a lower price; while, at the ſame time, the profits upon them are ſo conſiderable, as to enrich all thoſe who are employed, either in bringing them from Manilla, or vending them in New-Spain. As the intereſt both of the buyer and ſeller concurred in favouring this branch of commerce, it has continued to extend in ſpite of regulations, concerted with the moſt anxious jealouſy to circumſcribe it. Under cover of what the laws permit to be imported, great quantities of India goods are poured into the markets of New-Spain, and when the flota arrives at Vera Cruz from Europe, it often finds the wants of the people already ſupplied by cheaper and more acceptable commodities.

There is not, in the commercial arrangements of Spain, any circumſtance more inexplicable than the permiſſion of this trade between New-Spain and the Philippines, or more repugnant to its fundamental maxim of holding the colonies in perpetual dependence on the mother country, by prohibiting any commercial intercourſe that might ſuggeſt to them the idea of receiving a ſupply of their wants from any other quarter. This permiſſion muſt appear ſtill more extraordinary, from conſidering that Spain herſelf carries on no direct trade with her ſettlements in the Philippines, and grants a privilege to one of her American colonies, which ſhe denies to her ſubjects in Europe. It is probable, that the coloniſts who originally took poſſeſſion of the Philippines, having been ſent out from New-Spain, begun this intercourſe with a country which they conſidered, in ſome meaſure, as their parent ſtate, before the court of Madrid was aware of its conſequences, or could eſtabliſh regulations in order to prevent it. Many remonſtrances have been preſented againſt this trade, as detrimental to Spain, by diverting into another channel a large portion of that treaſure which ought to flow into the kingdom, as tending to give riſe to a ſpirit of independence in the colonies, and to encourage innumerable frauds, againſt which it is impoſſible to guard in tranſactions ſo far removed from the inſpection of government. But as it requires no ſlight effort of political wiſdom and vigour to aboliſh any practice which numbers are intereſted in ſupporting, and to which time has added the ſanction of its authority, the commerce between New-Spain and Manilla ſeems to be as conſiderable as ever, and may be conſidered as one chief cauſe of the elegance and ſplendor conſpicuous in this part of the Spaniſh dominions.

PORTUGUESE SETTLEMENTS

IN

SOUTH-AMERICA.

BRASIL.

THIS territory is ſituated between the equator and 35° ſouth latitude, and 60° weſt longitude; it is about one thouſand five hundred and ſixty miles in length, and one thouſand in breadth; but, meaſuring along the coaſt, it is two thouſand miles long, and is bordered with mountains that open from time to time, and form good harbours where veſſels may lie in ſafety.

It is bounded by the mouth of the river Amazon and the Atlantic ocean on the north; and by the ſame ocean on the eaſt; on the ſouth by the river Plata; on the weſt by moraſſes, lakes, torrents, rivers, and mountains, which ſeparate it from Amazonia and the Spaniſh poſſeſſions. On the coaſt are three ſmall iſlands, where ſhips touch for proviſions on their voyage to the South ſeas, viz. Fernando, St. Barbaro and St. Catherine's.

It was accidentally diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1500. Emanuel, king of Portugal, had equipped a ſquadron of thirteen ſail, carrying twelve hundred ſoldiers and ſailors deſtined for the Eaſt-Indies, under the conduct of Peter Alvarez Cabral. This admiral, quitting Liſbon on the 9th of March, 1500, ſtruck out to ſea to avoid the coaſt of Guinea, and ſteered his courſe ſouthward, that he might the more eaſily turn the cape of Good Hope. On the 24th of April he got ſight of the continent of South-America, which he judged to be a large iſland at ſome diſtance from the coaſt of Africa. Coaſting along for ſome time, he ventured to ſend a boat on ſhore, and was aſtoniſhed to obſerve the inhabitants entirely different from the Africans,

Africans in features, hair and complexion. It was found, however, impracticable to ſeize upon any of the Indians, who retired with great celerity to the mountains on the approach of the Portugueſe; yet, as the ſailors had diſcovered a good harbour, the admiral thought proper to come to an anchor, and called the bay Puerto Seguro. Next day he ſent another boat on ſhore, and had the good fortune to lay hold on two of the natives, whom he clothed and treated kindly, and then diſmiſſed, to make a proper report to their countrymen. The ſtratagem had the deſired effect. The Indians, having heard the relation of the priſoners, immediately crowded to the ſhore, ſinging, dancing, and ſounding horns of different kinds; which induced Cabral to land, and take ſolemn poſſeſſion in the name of his Portugueſe majeſty.

As ſoon as the court of Liſbon had ordered a ſurvey to be taken of the harbours, bays, rivers and coaſts, of Braſil, and was convinced that the country afforded neither gold nor ſilver, they held it in ſuch contempt, that they ſent thither none but condemned criminals and abandoned women. Two ſhips were ſent every year from Portugal, to carry the refuſe of the kingdom to this new world, and to bring home parrots, and woods for the dyers and cabinet-makers. Ginger was afterwards added, but ſoon after prohibited, leſt it ſhould interfere with the ſale of the ſame article from India.

In 1548, the Jews, many of whom had taken refuge in Portugal, beginning to be perſecuted by the inquiſition, were ſtripped of their poſſeſſions, and baniſhed to Braſil. Here, however, they were not entirely forſaken: many of them found kind relations and faithful friends; others, who were known to be men of probity and underſtanding, obtained money in advance from merchants of different nations, with whom they had formerly had tranſactions. By the aſſiſtance of ſome enterpriſing men they were enabled to cultivate ſugar-canes, which they firſt procured from the iſland of Madeira. Sugar, which till then had been uſed only in medicine, became an article of luxury; princes and great men were all eager to procure themſelves this new ſpecies of indulgence. This circumſtance proved favourable to Braſil, and enabled it to extend its ſugar plantations. The court of Liſbon, notwithſtanding its prejudices, began to be ſenſible, that a colony might be beneficial to the mother country, without producing gold or ſilver; and this ſettlement, which had been wholly left to the capricious management of the coloniſts, was now thought to deſerve ſome kind of attention; and accordingly

Thomas

Thomas de Souza was ſent thither, in 1549, to regulate and ſuperintend it.

This able governor began by reducing theſe men, who had always lived in a ſtate of anarchy, into proper ſubordination, and bringing their ſcattered plantations cloſer together; after which he applied himſelf to acquire ſome information reſpecting the natives, with whom he knew he muſt be neceſſarily engaged either in traffic or war. This it was no eaſy matter to accompliſh. Braſil was full of ſmall nations, ſome of which inhabited the foreſts, and others lived in the plains and along the rivers: ſome had ſettled habitations, but the greater number of them led a roving life, and moſt of them had no intercourſe with each other. It is not to be ſuppoſed, that ſuch a people would be at all diſpoſed to ſubmit to the yoke which the Portugueſe wanted to put upon them. At firſt they only declined all intercourſe with theſe ſtrangers; but finding themſelves purſued in order to be made ſlaves, and to be employed in the labours of the field, they took the reſolution to murder and devour all the Europeans they could ſeize upon. The friends and relations of the ſavages that were taken priſoners alſo ventured to make frequent attempts to reſcue them, and were ſometimes ſucceſsful; ſo that the Portugueſe were forced to attend to the double employments of labour and war.

Souza, by building San Salvador, gave a center to the colony; but the honour of ſettling, extending, and making it really uſeful to the mother country, was reſerved for the Jeſuits who attended him. Theſe men, who for their arts of inſinuation and addreſs have been equalled by none, diſperſed themſelves among the Indians. When any of the miſſionaries were murdered, they were immediately replaced by others; and ſeeming to be inſpired only with ſentiments of peace and charity, the Indians, in proceſs of time, grew not only familiar but paſſionately fond of them. As the miſſionaries were too few in number to tranſact all the buſineſs themſelves, they frequently deputed ſome of the moſt intelligent Indians in their ſtead. Theſe men, having diſtributed hatchets, knives and looking-glaſſes, among the ſavages they met with, repreſented the Portugueſe as a harmleſs, humane, and good ſort of people.

The proſperity of the colony of Braſil, which was viſible to all Europe, excited the envy of the French, Spaniards and Dutch ſucceſſively: the latter, indeed, bid faireſt for the conqueſt of the whole; their admiral Henry Lonk arrived, in the beginning of the year

1630, with forty-ſix men of war, on the coaſt of Fernambucca, one of the largeſt and beſt fortified captainſhips of theſe parts. He reduced it after ſeveral obſtinate engagements, in which he was always victorious. The troops he left behind ſubdued the captainſhips of Temaraca, Pareiba, and Rio Grande, in the years 1633, 1634, and 1635. Theſe, as well as Fernambucca, furniſhed annually a large quantity of ſugar, a great deal of wood for dying, and other commodities. The Hollanders were ſo elated with the acquiſition of this wealth, which flowed to Amſterdam inſtead of Liſbon, that they determined to conquer all the Braſils, and entruſted Maurice of Naſſau with the conduct of this enterpriſe. That general reached the place of his deſtination in the beginning of the year 1637; he found the ſoldiers ſo well diſciplined, the commanders ſuch experienced men, and ſo much readineſs in all to engage, that he directly took the field. He was ſucceſſively oppoſed by Albuquerque, Banjola, Lewis Rocca de Borgia, and the Braſilian Cameron, the idol of his people, paſſionately fond of the Portugueſe, brave, active, cunning, and who wanted no qualification neceſſary for a general, but to have learned the art of war under able commanders. Theſe ſeveral chiefs exerted their utmoſt efforts to defend the poſſeſſions that were under their protection; but their endeavours proved ineffectual. The Dutch ſeized upon the captainſhips of Siara, Seregippe, and the greater part of that of Bahia. Seven of the fifteen provinces which compoſed the colony had already ſubmitted to them, and they flattered themſelves that one or two campaigns would make them maſters of the reſt of their enemies poſſeſſions in that part of America, when they were ſuddenly checked by the revolution happening on the baniſhment of Philip IV. and placing the duke of Braganza on the throne. After this, the Portugueſe recovering their ſpirits, ſoon drove the Dutch out of Braſil, and have continued maſters of it ever ſince.

The country of Braſil is divided into the following provinces, or captainſhips, as they are called, viz. Paria, Maragnano, Siara, Rio Grande, Pareiba, Tamarica, Fernambucca, Seregippe, Bahia, Porto Seguro, Eſperito Santo, Rio de Janeiro, Angra, St. Vincent, and Del Rey.

The harbours of Braſil are Panambuco, All Saints, Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of Gabriel, and the port of St. Salvador; and with reſpect to rivers, there are a great number of noble ſtreams, which unite with the rivers Amazon and Plata, beſides others which fall into the Atlantic ocean.

The

The climate of Braſil has been deſcribed by two eminent naturaliſts, Piſo and Margrave, who obſerved it with a philoſophical accuracy, to be temperate and mild, when compared with that of Africa; they aſcribe this chiefly to the refreſhing wind which blows continually from the ſea. The air is not only cool, but chilly through the night, ſo that the natives kindle a fire every evening in their huts. As the rivers in this country annually overflow their banks, and leave a ſort of ſlime upon the lands, the ſoil here muſt be in many places amazingly rich; and this correſponds with the beſt information upon the ſubject. The vegetable productions are Indian corn, ſugar canes, tobacco, indigo, hides, ipecacuana, balſam, Braſil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, and is chiefly uſed in dying, but not the red of the beſt kind. Here is alſo the yellow fuſtic, of uſe in dying yellow, and a beautiful piece of ſpeckled wood, made uſe of in cabinet work. Here are five different ſorts of palm trees, ſome curious ebony, and a great variety of cotton trees. This country abounds in horned cattle, which are hunted for their hides only, twenty thouſand being ſent annually into Europe. There is alſo a plenty of deers, hares, and other game. Amongſt the wild beaſts found here, are tigers, porcupines, janouveras, and a fierce animal, ſomewhat like a greyhound; monkeys, ſloths, and the topiraſſou, a creature between a bull and an aſs, but without horns, and entirely harmleſs, the fleſh is very good, and has the flavour of beef. There is a numberleſs variety of fowl, wild and tame, in this country; among theſe are turkeys, fine white hens and ducks. The remarkable birds are the humming bird; the lankima, ſometimes called the unicorn bird, from its having a horn, two or three inches long, growing out of its forehead; the guira, famous for often changing its colour, being firſt black, then aſh-coloured, next white, afterwards ſcarlet, and laſt of all crimſon; which colours grow richer and deeper the longer the bird lives. Among the abundance of fiſh with which the ſeas, lakes, and rivers of this country are ſtored, is the globe fiſh, ſo called from its form, which is ſo beſet with ſpines like a hedgehog, that it bids defiance to all fiſh of prey. But the moſt remarkable creature is the ſea bladder, ſo called becauſe it greatly reſembles one, and ſwims on the ſurface of the waves; the inſide is filled with air, except a ſmall quantity of water, that ſerves to poiſe it. The ſkin is very thin and tranſparent, and like a bubble raiſed in the water, reflects all the colours of the ſky. Braſil breeds a great variety of ſerpents and venomous creatures, among which are the Indian ſalamander

der, a four-legged inſect, the ſting of which is mortal; the ibivaboca, a ſpecies of ſerpent, about ſeven yards long, and half a yard in circumference, whoſe poiſon is inſtantaneouſly fatal; the rattle-ſnake, which there attains an enormous ſize; the liboyd, or roe-buck ſnake, which authors inform us are capable of ſwallowing a roe-buck whole with his horns, being between twenty and thirty feet in length, and two yards in circumference. Beſides thoſe, there are many other inſects and ſerpents of a dangerous and venomous nature.

The gold and diamond mines are but a recent diſcovery; they were firſt opened in the year 1681, and have ſince yielded above five millions ſterling annually, of which ſum a fifth belongs to the crown. So plentiful are diamonds in this country, that the court of Portugal has found it neceſſary to reſtrain their importation, to prevent too great a dimunition of their value. They are neither ſo hard nor ſo clear as thoſe of the Eaſt-Indies, nor do they ſparkle ſo much, but they are whiter. The Braſilian diamonds are ſold ten per cent. cheaper than the Oriental ones, ſuppoſing the weights to be equal. The largeſt diamond in the world was ſent from Braſil to the king of Portugal; it weighs one thouſand ſix hundred and eighty carats, or twelve ounces and a half, and has been valued at fifty-ſix millions ſeven hundred and eighty-ſeven thouſand five hundred pounds. Some ſkilful lapidaries, however, are of opinion that this ſuppoſed diamond is only a topaz, in which caſe a very great abatement muſt be made in its value. The crown revenue ariſing from this colony amounts to two millions ſterling in gold, if we may credit ſome late writers, beſides the duties and cuſtoms on merchandiſe imported from that quarter. This, indeed, is more than a fifth of the precious metal produced by the mines, but every other conſequent advantage conſidered, it probably does not much exceed the truth.

The extraction of gold is neither very laborious nor dangerous in Braſil. It is ſometimes on the ſurface of the ſoil, and this is the pureſt kind, and at other times it is neceſſary to dig for it eighteen or twenty feet, but ſeldom lower. It is found in larger pieces upon the mountains and barren rocks than in the valleys, or on the borders of the river. Every man who diſcovers a mine, muſt give notice of it to the government. If the vein be thought of little conſequence by perſons appointed to examine it, it is always given up to the public; if it be declared to be a rich vein, the government reſerve a portion of it to themſelves; another ſhare is given to the commandant, a third to the intendant, and two ſhares are ſecured to the diſcoverer. The

miners are obliged to deliver to the king of Portugal a fifth part of all the gold which is extracted.

St. Salvador is the capital of Brafil. This city has a noble, ſpacious and commodious harbour, is built on a high and ſteep rock, having the ſea upon one ſide, and a lake forming a creſcent on the other. The ſituation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature, and the Portugueſe have beſides added to it very ſtrong fortifications; it is populous, magnificent, and beyond compariſon the moſt gay and opulent in all Brafil.

The trade of Brafil is very great, and increaſes every year. The Portugueſe have opportunities of ſupplying themſelves with ſlaves for their ſeveral works, at a much cheaper rate than any other European power that has ſettlements in America, they being the only European nation that has eſtabliſhed colonies in Africa, from whence they import as many as forty thouſand negroes annually.

The exceſſive confluence of people to the Brafil colonies, as well from other countries as from Portugal, not only enlarges the imports of gold, diamonds, ſugar, tobacco, hides, drugs and medicines, but what is of infinitely more importance to Europe in general, the exportation of the manufactures of this hemiſphere, of which the principal are the following: Great-Britain ſends woollen manufactures, ſuch as fine broad medley cloths, fine Spaniſh cloths, ſcarlet and black cloths, ſerges, duroys, druggets, ſagathies, ſhalloons, camblets, and Norwich ſtuffs, black Colcheſter bays, ſays, and perpetuanas, called long ells, hats, ſtockings, and gloves. Holland, Germany, and France, chiefly export fine hollands, bone lace, and fine thread; ſilk manufactures, pepper, lead, block tin, and other articles, are alſo ſent from different countries. Beſides the particulars already ſpecified, England likewiſe trades with Portugal, for the uſe of the Brafils, in copper and braſs, wrought and unwrought pewter, and all kinds of hardware; all which articles have ſo enlarged the Portugueſe trade, that inſtead of twelve ſhips uſually employed in the Brafil commerce, there are now never fewer than one hundred ſail of large veſſels conſtantly going and returning to thoſe colonies. To all this may be added, that Brafil receives from Madeira great quantity of wine, vinegar, and brandy; and from the Azores, liquors to the amount of twenty-five thouſand pounds per ann. Indeed, the commerce of Brafil alone is ſufficient to raiſe Portugal to a conſiderable height of naval power, as it maintains a conſtant nurſery of ſeamen; yet a certain infatuation in the policy of the country has prevented that ef-

fect even amidſt all theſe extraordinary advantages. All the ſhips in this trade being under the direction of the government, have their appointed ſeaſons of going and returning, under convoy of a certain number of men of war; nor can a ſingle ſhip clear out or go, except with the fleet, but by a ſpecial licence from the king, which is ſeldom granted, though it is eaſily determined that ſuch reſtrictions can prove no way beneficial to the general commerce, though poſſibly the crown revenue may be better guarded thereby. The fleets ſail in the following order, and at the following ſtated periods: that to Rio de Janeiro ſets ſail in January; the fleet to Bahia, or the bay of All Saints, in February; and the third fleet, to Fernambucca, in the month of March.

The native Braſilians are about the ſize of the Europeans, but not ſo ſtout. They are ſubject to fewer diſtempers, and are long lived. They wear no cloathing; the women wear their hair extremely long, the men cut their's ſhort; the women wear bracelets of bones of a beautiful white, the men necklaces of the ſame; the women paint their faces, and the men their bodies. The food of the Braſilians is very ſimple; they live upon ſhell fiſh by the ſea ſide, along the rivers by fiſhing, and in the foreſts by hunting; and when theſe fail, they live upon caſſava and other roots. They are extremely fond of dancing and other amuſements, and theſe amuſements are not interrupted by the worſhip of a Supreme Being, for it is ſaid they know of none, nor is their tranquillity diſturbed by the dread of a future ſtate, of which they have no idea. They have, however, their magicians, who, by ſtrange contortions, ſo far work upon the credulity of the people, as to throw them into violent convulſions. If the impoſtures of theſe magicians are detected, they are immediately put to death, which ſerves in ſome meaſure to check the ſpirit of deceit. Every Braſilian takes as many wives as he chooſes, and puts them away when he gets tired of them. When the women lie in, they keep their bed but a day or two; then the mother, hanging the child to her neck in a cotton ſcarf, returns to her uſual occupation, without any kind of inconvenience. Travellers are received with diſtinguiſhed marks of civility by the native Braſilians: wherever they go they are ſurrounded with women, who waſh their feet, and welcome them with the moſt obliging expreſſions. But it would be an unpardonable affront if they ſhould leave the family where they were firſt entertained, in hopes of better accommodation in another. Some of theſe virtues, however, were more applicable to theſe

natives, before they were corrupted by an intercourſe with the Europeans.

With reſpect to the religion of Braſil, though the king of Portugal, as grand maſter of the order of Chriſt, is ſolely in poſſeſſion of the titles; and though the produce of the cruſade belongs entirely to him, yet in this extenſive country, ſix biſhoprics have been ſucceſſively founded, which acknowledge for their ſuperior the archbiſhop of Bohia, eſtabliſhed in the year 1552. The fortunate prelates, moſt of them Europeans, who fill theſe honourable ſees, live in a very commodious manner, upon the emoluments attached to the function of their miniſtry, and upon a penſion of from fifty to one thouſand two hundred and fifty pounds per ann. granted to them by the government. Among the inferior clergy, none but the miſſionaries who are ſettled in the Indian villages are paid, but the others find ſufficient reſources in the ſuperſtition of the people. Beſides an annual tribute paid by every family to the clergyman, he is entitled to two ſhillings for every birth, for every wedding, and every burial. Though there is not abſolutely an inquiſition in Braſil, yet the people of that country are not protected from the outrages of that barbarous and infernal inſtitution.

The government of Braſil is in the viceroy, who has two councils, one for criminal, the other for civil affairs, in both of which he preſides; but there is no part of the world where the lawyers are more corrupt, or the chicanery of their profeſſion more practiſed.

Only half of the Captainſhips, into which this country is divided, belong to the crown, the reſt being fiefs made over to ſome of the nobility, in reward of their extraordinary ſervices, who do little more than acknowledge the ſovereignty of the king of Portugal.

FRENCH

FRENCH POSSESIONS

IN

SOUTH-AMERICA.

CAYENNE.

CAYENNE is bounded north and eaſt, by the Atlantic ocean; ſouth, by the Amazonia; and weſt, by Guiana, or Surinam. It extends two hundred and forty miles along the coaſt of Guiana, and nearly three hundred miles within land, lying between the equator and the 5th degree of north latitude.

The land along the coaſt is low, and very ſubject to inundations during the rainy ſeaſons, from the multitude of rivers which ruſh down from the mountains with great impetuoſity. Here the atmoſphere is very hot, moiſt and unwholeſome, eſpecially where the woods are not cleared away; but on the higher parts where the trees are cut down, and the ground laid out in plantations, the air is more healthy, and the heat great, mitigated by the ſea breezes. The ſoil in many parts is very fertile, producing ſugar, tobacco, Indian corn, fruits, and other neceſſaries of life.

The French have taken poſſeſſion of an iſland upon this coaſt, called alſo Cayenne. This ſettlement was begun in 1635. A report had prevailed for ſome time before, that in the interior parts of Guiana, there was a country known by the name of del Dorado, which contained immenſe riches in gold and precious ſtones, more than ever Cortes and Pizarro had found in Mexico and Peru, and this fable had fired the imagination of every nation in Europe. It is ſuppoſed that this was the country in queſt of which Sir Walter Raleigh went on his laſt

laſt voyage; and as the French were not behind their neighbours in their endeavours to find out ſo deſirable a country, ſome attempts for this purpoſe were likewiſe made by that nation much about the ſame time, which at laſt coming to nothing, the adventurers took up their reſidence on the iſland of Cayenne. In 1643, ſome merchants of Rouen united their ſtock, with a deſign to ſupport the new colony, but committing their affairs to one Poncet de Bretigny, a man of a ferocious diſpoſition, he declared war both againſt the coloniſts and ſavages, in conſequence of which he was ſoon maſſacred. This cataſtrophe entirely extinguiſhed the ardour of theſe aſſociates; and in 1651 a new company was eſtabliſhed. This promiſed to be much more conſiderable than the former; and they ſet out with ſuch a capital as enabled them to collect ſeven or eight hundred coloniſts in the city of Paris itſelf. Theſe embarked on the Seine in order to ſail down to Havre de Grace, but unfortunately the Abbé de Marivault, a man of great virtue, and the principal promoter of the undertaking, was drowned as he was ſtepping into his boat. Another gentleman who was to have acted as general, was aſſaſſinated on his paſſage; and twelve of the principal adventurers who had promiſed to put the colony into a flouriſhing ſituation, not only were the principal perpetrators of this act, but uniformly behaved in the ſame atrocious manner. At laſt they hanged one of their own number, two died, three were baniſhed to a deſert iſland, and the reſt abandoned themſelves to every kind of exceſs. The commandant of the citadel deſerted to the Dutch with part of his garriſon. The ſavages, rouſed by numberleſs provocations, fell upon the remainder; ſo that the few who were left, thought themſelves happy in eſcaping to the Leeward iſlands in a boat and two canoes, abandoning the fort, ammunition, arms, and merchandiſe, fifteen months after they had landed on the iſland.

In 1663, a new company was formed, whoſe capital amounted only to eight thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty pounds. By the aſſiſtance of the miniſtry they expelled the Dutch, who had taken poſſeſſion of the iſland, and ſettled themſelves much more comfortably than their predeceſſors. In 1667, the iſland was taken by the Engliſh, and in 1676 by the Dutch, but afterwards reſtored to the French, and ſince that time has never been attacked. Soon after, ſome pirates, laden with the ſpoils they had gathered in the South ſeas, came and fixed their reſidence at Cayenne, reſolving to employ the treaſures they had acquired in the cultivation of the lands. In

1688,

1688, Ducaſſe, an able ſeaman, arrived with ſome ſhips from France, and propoſed to them the plundering of Surinam. This propoſal exciting their natural turn for plunder, the pirates betook themſelves to their old trade, and almoſt all the reſt followed their example. The expedition, however, proved unfortunate; many of the aſſailants were killed, and all the reſt taken priſoners and ſent to the Caribbee iſlands. This loſs the colony has never yet recovered.

The iſland of Cayenne is about ſixteen leagues in circumference, and is only parted from the continent by two rivers. By a particular formation, uncommon in iſlands, the land is higheſt near the water ſide, and low in the middle. Hence the land is ſo full of moraſſes, that all communication between the different parts of it is impoſſible, without taking a great circuit. There are ſome ſmall tracts of an excellent ſoil to be found here and there; but the generality is dry, ſandy, and ſoon exhauſted. The only town in the colony is defended by a covert way, a large ditch, a very good mud rampart, and five baſtions. In the middle of the town is a pretty conſiderable eminence, of which a redoubt has been made that is called the fort. The entrance into the harbour is through a narrow channel, and ſhips can only get in at high water owing to the rocks and reefs that are ſcattered about this paſs.

The firſt produce of Cayenne was the arnotto, from the produce of which, the coloniſts proceeded to that of cotton, indigo, and laſtly, ſugar. It was the firſt of all the French colonies that attempted to cultivate coffee. The coffee tree was brought from Surinam in 1721, by ſome deſerters from Cayenne, who purchaſed their pardon by ſo doing. Ten or twelve years after they planted cocoa; we have very little account of the produce with reſpect to quantity, but as far back as the year 1752, there were exported from Cayenne two hundred and ſixty thouſand five hundred and forty-one pounds of arnotto, eighty thouſand three hundred and ſixty-three pounds of ſugar, ſeventeen thouſand nine hundred and nineteen pounds of cotton, twenty-ſix thouſand eight hundred and eighty-one pounds of coffee, ninety-one thouſand nine hundred and ſixteen pounds of cocoa, ſix hundred and eighteen trees for timber, and one hundred and four planks.

DUTCH

DUTCH POSSESSIONS

IN

SOUTH-AMERICA.

SURINAM, OR DUTCH GUIANA.

THIS province, the only one belonging to the Dutch on the continent of America, is ſituated between 5° and 7° north latitude, having the mouth of the Oronoko and the Atlantic, on the north; Cayenne, on the eaſt; Amazonia, on the ſouth; and Terra Firma on the weſt.

The Dutch claim the whole coaſt from the mouth of Oronoko to the river Marowyne, on which are ſituated their colonies of Eſſequibo, Demerara, Berbice, and Surinam. The latter begins with the river Saramacha, and ends with the Marowyne, including a length of coaſt of one hundred and twenty miles.

A number of fine rivers paſs through this country, the principal of which are Eſſequibo, Surinam, Demerara, Berbice, and Conya. Eſſequibo is nine miles wide at its mouth, and is more than three hundred miles in length. Surinam is a beautiful river, three quarters of a mile wide, navigable for the largeſt veſſels four leagues, and for ſmaller veſſels ſixty or ſeventy miles farther. Its banks, quite to the water's edge, are covered with evergreen mangrove trees, which render the paſſage up this river very delightful. The Demerara is about three quarters of a mile wide where it empties into the Surinam, is navigable for large veſſels one hundred miles; a hundred

miles

miles farther are ſeveral falls of eaſy aſcent, above which it divides into the ſouth-weſt and ſouth-eaſt branches.

The water of the lower parts in the river is brackiſh, and unfit for uſe; and the inhabitants are obliged to make uſe of rain water, which is here uncommonly ſweet and good. It is caught in ciſterns placed under ground, and before drinking, is ſet in large earthen pots to ſettle, by which means it becomes very clear and wholeſome. Theſe ciſterns are ſo large and numerous, that water is ſeldom ſcarce.

In the months of September, October, and November, the climate is unhealthy, particularly to ſtrangers. The common diſeaſes are putrid and other fevers, the dry belly-ach, and the dropſy. One hundred miles back from the ſea, the ſoil is quite different, a hilly country, a pure, dry, wholeſome air, where a fire ſometimes would not be diſagreeable. Along the ſea coaſt the water is unwholeſome, the air damp and ſultry. The thermometer ranges from 75° to 90° through the year. A north-eaſt breeze never fails to blow from about nine o'clock in the morning through the day, in the hotteſt ſeaſons. As the days and nights throughout the year are very nearly of an equal length, the air can never become extremely heated, nor the inhabitants ſo greatly incommoded by the heat, as thoſe who live at a greater diſtance from the equator. The ſeaſons were formerly divided regularly into rainy and dry; but of late years ſo much dependence cannot be placed upon them, owing probably to the country's being more cleared, by which means a free paſſage is opened for the air and vapours.

Through the whole country runs a ridge of oyſter ſhells, nearly parallel to the coaſt, but three or four leagues from it, of a conſiderable breadth, and from four to eight feet deep, compoſed of ſhells exactly of the ſame nature as thoſe which form the preſent coaſt: from this and other circumſtances, there is great reaſon to believe that the land, from that diſtance from the ſea, is all new land, reſcued from the water by ſome revolution in nature, or other unknown cauſe.

On each ſide of the rivers and creeks are ſituated the plantations, containing from five hundred to two thouſand acres each, in number about five hundred and fifty in the whole colony, producing at preſent annually about ſixteen thouſand hogſheads of ſugar, twelve million pounds of coffee, ſeven hundred thouſand pounds of cocoa, eight hundred and fifty thouſand pounds of cotton: all which articles,

cotton excepted, have fallen off within fifteen years, at leaſt one third, owing to bad management, both here and in Holland, and to other cauſes. Of the proprietors of theſe plantations, not above eighty reſide here. The ſugar plantations have many of them water mills, which being much more profitable than others, and the ſituation of the colony admitting of them, will probably become general; of the reſt, ſome are worked by mules, others by cattle, but from the lowneſs of the country none by the wind. The eſtates are for the greateſt part mortgaged for as much or more than they are worth, which greatly diſcourages any improvements which might otherwiſe be made. Was it not for the unfortunate ſituation of the colony in this and other reſpects, it is certainly capable of being brought to a great height of improvement; dyes, gums, oils, plants for medicinal purpoſes, &c. might, and undoubtedly will, at ſome future period, be found in abundance. Rum might be diſtilled here; indigo, ginger, rice and tobacco, have been, and may be farther cultivated, and many other articles. In the woods are found many kinds of good and durable timber, and ſome woods for ornamental purpoſes, particularly a kind of mahogany called copic. The ſoil is perhaps as rich and as luxuriant as any in the world; it is generally a rich, fat, loamy earth, lying in ſome places above the level of the rivers at high water, which riſe about eight feet, but in moſt places below it. Whenever, from a continued courſe of cultivation for many years, a piece of land becomes impoveriſhed, for manure is not known here, it is laid under water for a certain number of years, and thereby regains its fertility, and in the mean time a new piece of wood land is cleared. This country has never experienced thoſe dreadful ſcourges of the Weſt-Indies, hurricanes; and droughts from the lowneſs of the land it has not to fear, nor has the produce ever been deſtroyed by inſects or by the blaſt. In ſhort, this colony, by proper management, might become equal to Jamaica, or any other. Land is not wanting; it is finely interſected by noble rivers, and abundant creeks; the ſoil is of the beſt kind; it is well ſituated, and the climate is not very unhealthy: it is certainly growing better, and will continue ſo to do, the more the country is cleared of its woods, and cultivated.

The rivers abound with fiſh, ſome of which are good; at certain ſeaſons of the year there is plenty of turtle. The woods abound with plenty of deer, hares, and rabbits, a kind of buffaloe, and two ſpecies of

of wild hogs, one of which, the peccary, is remarkable for having its navel on the back.

The woods are infeſted with ſeveral ſpecies of tigers, but with no other ravenous or dangerous animals. The rivers are rendered dangerous by alligators, from four to ſeven feet long, and a man was a ſhort time ſince cruſhed between the jaws of a fiſh, but its name is not known. Scorpions and tarantulas are found here of a large ſize and great venom, and other inſects without number, ſome of them very dangerous and troubleſome. The torporific eel, the touch of which by means of the bare hand or any conductor, has the effect of a ſtrong electrical ſhock. Serpents alſo, ſome of which are venomous, and others, as has been aſſerted by many credible perſons, are from twenty-five to fifty feet long. In the woods are monkeys, the ſloth, and parrots in all their varieties; alſo ſome birds of beautiful plumage, among others the flamingo, but few or no ſinging birds.

Paramaribo, ſituated on Surinam river, four leagues from the ſea, north latitude 6°, weſt longitude 55° from Greenwich, is the principal town in Surinam. It contains about two thouſand whites, one half of whom are Jews, and eight thouſand ſlaves. The houſes are principally of wood, ſome few have glaſs windows, but generally they have wooden ſhutters. The ſtreets are ſpacious and ſtraight, and planted on each ſide with orange or tamarind trees.

About ſeventy miles from the ſea, on the ſame river, is a village of about forty or fifty houſes, inhabited by Jews. This village, and the town above mentioned, with the intervening plantations, contain all the inhabitants in this colony, which amount to three thouſand two hundred whites, and forty-three thouſand ſlaves. The buildings on the plantations are many of them coſtly, convenient, and airy. The country around is thinly inhabited with the native Indians, a harmleſs friendly race of beings. They are, in general, ſhort of ſtature, but remarkably well made, of a light copper colour, ſtraight black hair, without beards, high cheek bones, and broad ſhoulders. In their ears, noſes, and hair the women wear ornaments of ſilver, &c. Both men and women go naked. One nation or tribe of them tie the lower part of the legs of the female children, when young, with a cord bound very tight for the breadth of ſix inches about the ancle, which cord is never afterwards taken off but to put on a new one, by which means the fleſh, which ſhould otherwiſe grow on that part of the leg, increaſes the calf to a great ſize, and leaves the bone

below nearly bare. This, though it muſt render them very weak, is reckoned a great beauty by them. The language of the Indians appears to be very ſoft. They are mortal enemies to every kind of labour, but nevertheleſs manufacture a few articles, ſuch as very fine cotton hammocks, earthen water pots, baſkets, a red or yellow dye called roucau, and ſome other trifles, all which they exchange for ſuch articles as they ſtand in need of.

They paint themſelves red, and ſome are curiouſly figured with black. Their food conſiſts chiefly of fiſh and crabs; and caſſava, of which they plant great quantities, and this is almoſt the only produce they attend to. They cannot be ſaid to be abſolutely wandering tribes, but their huts being merely a few croſs ſticks covered with branches, ſo as to defend them from the rain and ſun, they frequently quit their habitations, if they ſee occaſion, and eſtabliſh them elſewhere. They do not ſhun the whites, and have been ſerviceable againſt the runaway negroes.

Dr. Bancroft obſerves, that the inhabitants of Dutch Guiana are either whites, blacks, or the reddiſh brown aboriginal natives. The promiſcuous intercourſe of theſe different people have generated ſeveral intermediate caſts, whoſe colours depend on their degree of conſanguinity to either whites, blacks, negroes, or Indians.

The river Surinam is guarded by a fort and two redoubts at the entrance, and a fort at Paramaribo, but none of them of any ſtrength, ſo that one or two frigates would be ſufficient to make themſelves maſters of the whole colony, and never was there a people who more ardently wiſhed for a change of government than the inhabitants of this colony do at this time. The many grievances they labour under, and the IMMENSE BURTHEN OF TAXES, which threaten the ruin of the colony, make them excuſable in their general deſire to change the Dutch for a French government. This is preciſely the caſe in Europe, the taxes are ſo enormous, and the oppreſſion of the Statholderian government ſo great, that we may venture to aſſert, that no human power *(and we cannot think a Divine one will interfere)* can poſſibly prevent much longer a revolution from taking place.

The colony is not immediately under the States General, but under a company in Holland, called the Directors of Surinam, a company *firſt formed by the States General*, but now ſupplying its own vacancies; by them are appointed the governor and all the prin-

principal officers both civil and military. The interior government conſiſts of a governor, and a ſupreme and inferior council; the members of the latter are choſen by the governor from a double nomination of the principal inhabitants, and thoſe of the former in the ſame manner. By theſe powers, and by a magiſtrate preſiding over all criminal affairs, juſtice is executed, and laws are enacted neceſſary for the interior government of the colony; thoſe of a more general and public nature are enacted by the directors, and require no approbation by the court.

The colony is guarded by about one thouſand ſix hundred regular troops, paid by the directors. Theſe troops, together with a corps of about two hundred and fifty free negroes, paid by the Dutch government, and another ſmall corps of chaſſeurs, and as many ſlaves as the court thinks fit to order from the planters, from time to time, are diſperſed at poſts placed at proper diſtances on a cordon, ſurrounding the colony on the land ſide, in order, as far as poſſible, to defend the diſtant plantations and the colony in general, from the attacks of ſeveral dangerous bands of runaway ſlaves, which from very ſmall beginnings have, from the natural prolificacy of the negro race, and the continual addition of freſh fugitives, arrived at ſuch a height as to have coſt the country very great ſums of money, and much loſs of men, without being able to do theſe negroes any effectual injury.

This colony was firſt poſſeſſed by the French as early as the year 1630 or 40, and was abandoned by them on account of its unhealthy climate. In the year 1650 it was taken by ſome Engliſhmen, and in 1662 a charter grant was made of it by Charles II. About this time it was conſiderably augmented by the ſettlement of a number of Jews, who had been driven out of Cayenne and the Braſils, whoſe deſcendants, with other Jews, compoſe at preſent one half of the white inhabitants of the colony, and are allowed great privileges. In 1667 it was taken by the Dutch, and the Engliſh having got poſſeſſion about the ſame time of the then Dutch colony of New-York, each party retained its conqueſt; the Engliſh planters moſt of them retired to Jamaica, leaving their ſlaves behind them, whoſe language is ſtill Engliſh, but ſo corrupted as not to be underſtood at firſt by an Engliſhman.

ABORIGI-

ABORIGINAL AMERICA,

OR THAT PART WHICH

THE ABORIGINAL INDIANS POSSESS.

AMAZONIA.

AMAZONIA is ſituated between the equator and 20° ſouth latitude; its length is one thouſand four hundred miles, and its breadth nine hundred miles: it is bounded on the north by Terra Firma and Guiana; on the eaſt by Braſil; on the ſouth by Paraguay; and on the weſt by Peru.

The air is cooler in this country than could be expected, conſidering it is ſituated in the torrid zone. This is partly owing to the heavy rains which occaſion the rivers to overflow their banks one-half of the year, and partly to the cloudineſs of the weather, which obſcures the ſun great part of the time he is above the horizon. During the rainy ſeaſon the country is ſubject to dreadful ſtorms of thunder and lightning.

The ſoil is extremely fertile, producing cocoa nuts, pine apples, bananas, plantains, and a great variety of tropical fruits; cedar, redwood, pak, ebony, logwood, and many other ſorts of dying wood; together with tobacco, ſugar canes, cotton, potatoes, balſam, honey, &c. The woods abound with tigers, wild boars, buffaloes, deer, and game of various kinds. The rivers and lakes abound with fiſh. Here are alſo ſea-cows and turtles; but the crocodiles and water ſerpents render fiſhing a dangerous employment.

The river Amazon is the largeſt in the known world. This river, ſo famous for the length of its courſe, this great vaſſal of the ſea, to which it brings the tribute it has received from ſo many of its own tributaries, ſeems to be produced by innumerable torrents, which ruſh down with amazing impetuoſity from the eaſtern declivity of the

the Andes, and unite in a ſpacious plain to form this immenſe river. In its progreſs of three thouſand three hundred miles it receives the waters of a prodigious number of rivers, ſome of which come from far, and are very broad and deep. It is interſperſed with an infinite number of iſlands, which are too often overflowed to admit of culture: it falls into the Atlantic ocean under the equator, and is there one hundred and fifty miles broad.

The natives of this country, like all the other Americans, are of a good ſtature, have handſome features, long black hair, and copper complexions. They are ſaid to have a taſte for the imitative arts, eſpecially painting and ſculpture, and make good mechanics. Their cordage is made of the barks of trees, and their ſails of cotton, their hatchets of tortoiſe ſhells or hard ſtones, their chiſels, plains and wimbles, of the horns and teeth of wild beaſts, and their canoes are trees hollowed. They ſpin and weave cotton cloth, build their houſes with wood and clay, and thatch them with reeds. Their arms in general are darts and javelins, bows and arrows, with targets of cane or fiſh ſkins. The ſeveral nations are governed by their chiefs or caziques; it being obſervable, that the monarchical form of government has prevailed almoſt univerſally, both among *ancient* and *modern barbarians*, doubtleſs on account of its ſuperior advantages with reſpect to war and rapine, and as requiring a much leſs refined policy than the republican ſyſtem, and therefore beſt adapted for the ſavage ſtate. The regalia, which diſtinguiſh the chiefs, are a crown of parrots feathers, a chain of tigers teeth or claws, which hangs round the waiſt, and a wooden ſword, which, according to ſome authors, were intended for hieroglyphics.

As early as the time of Hercules and Theſeus, the Greeks had imagined the exiſtence of a nation of Amazons; with this fable they embelliſhed the hiſtory of all their heroes, not excepting that of Alexander; and the Spaniards, infatuated with this dream of antiquity, transferred it to America. They reported, that a republic of female warriors actually exiſted in America, who did not live in ſociety with men, and only admitted them once a year for the purpoſes of procreation. To give the more credit to this romantic ſtory, it was reported, not without reaſon, that the women in America were all ſo unhappy, and were treated with ſuch contempt and inhumanity by the men, that many of them had agreed to ſhake off the yoke of their tyrants. It was farther ſaid, that being accuſtomed to follow the men into the foreſts, and to carry their proviſions and

baggage when they went out to fight or to hunt, they muſt neceſſarily have been inured to hardſhips, and rendered capable of forming ſo bold a reſolution. Since this ſtory has been propagated, infinite pains have been taken to find out the truth of it, but no traces could ever be diſcovered.

The mind of a good man is pleaſed with the reflection, that any part of South-America has eſcaped the ravages of European tyrants. This country has hitherto remained unſubdued; the original inhabitants, therefore, enjoy their native freedom and independence, the birthright of every human being.

PATAGONIA.

PATAGONIA is ſituated between 35° and 54° ſouth latitude; its length is eleven hundred miles, and its breadth three hundred and fifty: it is bounded north by Chili and Paragua; eaſt by the Atlantic ocean; ſouth by the ſtraits of Magellan; weſt by the Pacific ocean.

The climate is ſaid to be much colder in this country than in the north under the ſame parallels of latitude, which is imputed to the Andes, which paſs through it, being covered with eternal ſnow: it is almoſt impoſſible to ſay what the ſoil would produce, as it is not at all cultivated by the natives. The northern parts are covered with wood, among which is an inexhauſtible fund of large timber; but towards the ſouth, it is ſaid, there is not a ſingle tree large enough to be of uſe to mechanics. There are, however, good paſtures, which feed incredible numbers of horned cattle and horſes, firſt carried there by the Spaniards, and now increaſed in an amazing degree.

It is inhabited by a variety of Indian tribes, among which are the Patagons, from whom the country takes its names, the Pampas and the Coſſores: they all live upon fiſh and game, and what the earth produces ſpontaneouſly: their huts are thatched, and, notwithſtanding the rigour of the climate, they wear no other clothes than a mantle made of ſeal ſkin, or the ſkin of ſome beaſt, and that they throw off when they are in action: they are exceedingly hardy, brave and active, making uſe of their arms, which are bows and arrows headed with flints, with amazing dexterity.

Magellan, who firſt diſcovered the ſtraits which bear his name, and after him Commodore Byron, have reported, that there exiſts, in theſe regions, a race of giants; but others, who have ſailed this way, contradict the report. Upon the whole we may conclude, that this ſtory is, perhaps, like that of the female republic of Amazons.

The Spaniards once built a fort upon the ſtraits, and left a garriſon in it to prevent any other European nation paſſing that way into the Pacific ocean; but moſt of the men periſhed by hunger, whence

the place obtained the name of port Famine, and ſince that fatal event, no nation has attempted to plant colonies in Patagonia. As to the religion or government of theſe ſavages, we have no certain information: ſome have reported, that theſe people believe in inviſible powers, both good and evil; and that they pay a tribute of gratitude to the one, and deprecate the wrath and vengeance of the other.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

We have now traverſed the ſeveral provinces of that extenſive region, which is comprehended between the iſthmus of Darien and the fifty-fourth degree of ſouth latitude. We have taken a curſory view of the rivers, the ſoil, the climate, the productions, the commerce, the inhabitants, &c.

The hiſtory of Columbus, together with his bold and adventurous actions in the diſcovery of this country, we have but ſlightly noticed in this account, as we had done this in a preceding part of this work.* His elevated mind ſuggeſted to him ideas ſuperior to any other man of his age, and his aſpiring genius prompted him to make greater and more noble efforts for new diſcoveries: he croſſed the extenſive Atlantic, and brought to view a world unheard of by the people of the ancient hemiſphere. This excited an enterpriſing, avaricious, ſpirit among the inhabitants of Europe; and they flocked to America for the purpoſes of plunder. In conſequence of which, a ſcene of barbarity has been acted, of which South-America has been the principal theatre, which ſhocks the human mind, and almoſt ſtaggers belief. No ſooner had the Spaniards ſet foot upon the American continent, than they laid claim to the ſoil, to the mines, and to the ſervices of the natives, wherever they came. Countries were invaded, kingdoms were overturned, innocence was attacked, and happineſs had no aſylum. Deſpotiſm and cruelty, with all their terrible ſcourges, attended their advances in every part: they went forth, they conquered, they ravaged, they deſtroyed: no deceit, no cruelty, was too great to be made uſe of to ſatisfy their avarice: juſtice was diſregarded, and mercy formed no part of the character of theſe inhuman conquerors: they were intent only on the proſecution of ſchemes moſt degrading and moſt ſcandalous to the human character. In South-America, the kingdoms of Terra Firma, of Peru, of Chili, of Paragua, of Braſil, and of Guiana, ſucceſſively fell a ſacrifice to their vicious

* See vol. i. page 1.

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ambition and avarice. The hiſtory of their ſeveral reductions was too copious to be inſerted at large in a work of this kind; but we have endeavoured to afford the reader a brief view of thoſe tranſactions which have blaſted the character of all thoſe who had any thing to do with the conqueſt of this part of the globe. Let us then turn from theſe diſtreſſing ſcenes; let us leave the political world, where nothing but ſpectacles of horror are preſented to our view; where ſcenes of blood and carnage diſtract the imagination; where the avarice, injuſtice and inhumanity of men, furniſh nothing but uneaſy ſenſations; let us leave theſe, and enter the natural world, whoſe laws are conſtant and uniform, and where beautiful, grand and ſublime objects continually preſent themſelves to our view.

We have given a deſcription of thoſe beautiful and ſpacious rivers which every where interſect this country; and of that immenſe chain of mountains, which runs from one end of the continent to the other. Theſe enormous maſſes, which riſe to ſuch prodigious heights above the humble ſurface of the earth, where almoſt all mankind have fixed their reſidence; theſe maſſes, which in one part are crowned with impenetrable and ancient foreſts, that have never reſounded with the ſtroke of the hatchet, and in another, raiſe their towering tops, and arreſt the clouds in their courſe, while in other parts they keep the traveller at a diſtance from their ſummits, either by ramparts of ice that ſurround them, or from vollies of flame iſſuing forth from the frightful and yawning caverns; theſe maſſes giving riſe to impetuous torrents deſcending with dreadful noiſe from their open ſides, to rivers, fountains and boiling ſprings, fill every beholder with aſtoniſhment.

The height of the moſt elevated point in the Pyrenees is, according to Mr. Coſſini, ſix thouſand ſix hundred and forty-ſix feet. The height of the mountain Gemmi, in the canton of Berne, is ten thouſand one hundred and ten feet. The height of the peak of Teneriffe, is thirteen thouſand one hundred and ſeventy-eight feet. The height of the Chimborazo, the moſt elevated point of the Andes, is twenty thouſand two hundred and eighty feet. Thus, upon compariſon, the higheſt part of the Andes is ſeven thouſand one hundred and two feet higher than the peak of Teneriffe, the moſt elevated mountain known in the ancient hemiſphere.

HISTORY

OF THE

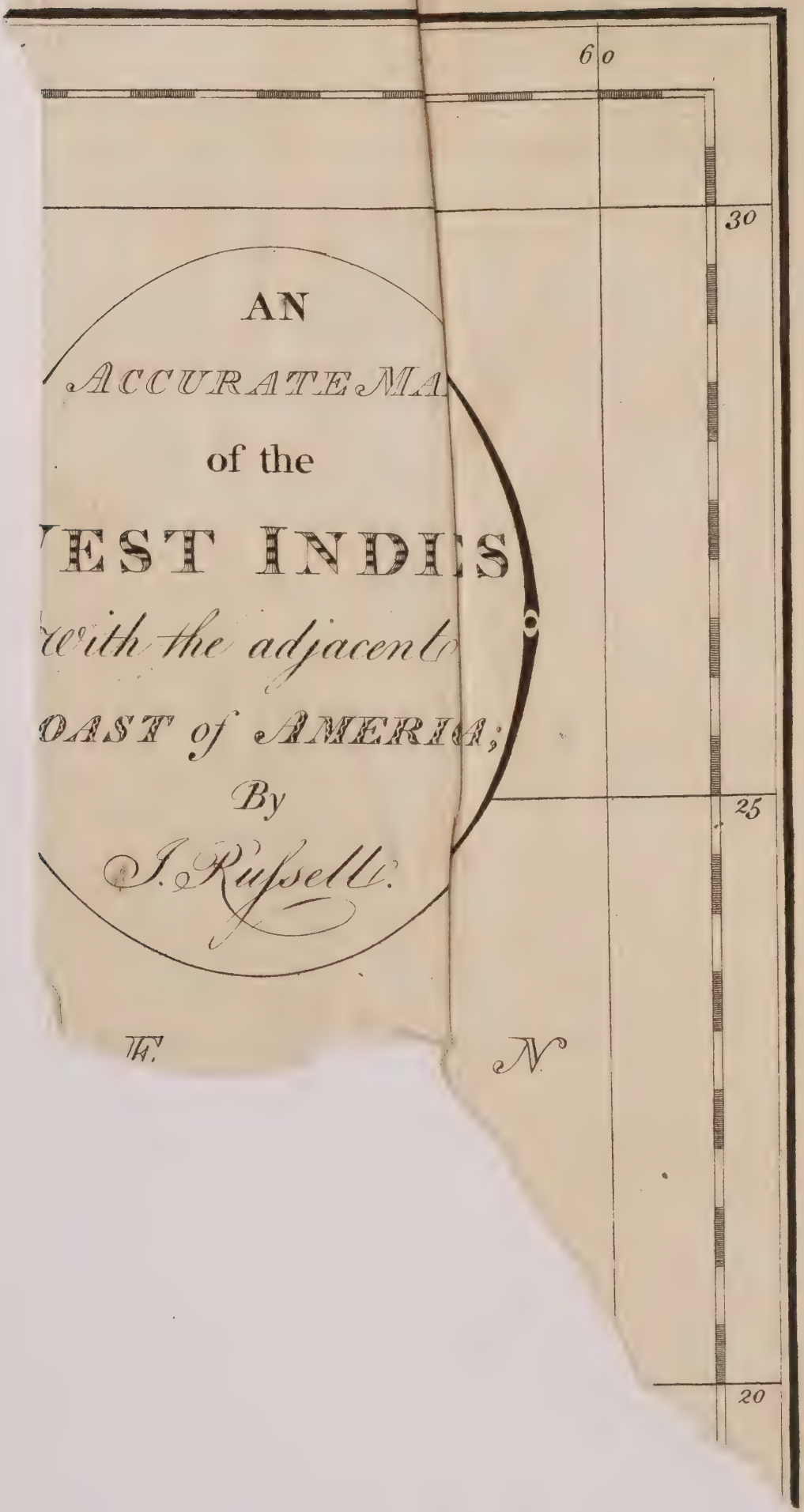
WEST-INDIA ISLANDS.

THE vaſt continent of America is divided into two parts, North and South, the narrow iſthmus of Darien ſerving as a link to connect them together; between the Florida ſhore on the northern peninſula, and the gulf of Maracabo on the ſouthern, lie a multitude of iſlands, which are called the Weſt-Indies, from the name of India, originally aſſigned to them by Columbus; though, in conſequence of the opinions of ſome geographers of the fifteenth century, they are frequently known by the appellation of Antilia or Antilles: this term is, however, more often applied to the windward or Caribbean iſlands.

Subordinate to this comprehenſive and ſimple arrangement, neceſſity or convenience has introduced more local diſtinctions: that portion of the Atlantic which is ſeparated from the main ocean to the north and eaſt by the iſlands, though known by the general appellation of the Mexican gulf, is itſelf properly divided into three diſtinct parts; the gulf of Mexico, the bay of Honduras, and the Caribbean ſea, ſo called from that claſs of iſlands which bound this part of the ocean on the eaſt. Of this claſs, a group nearly adjoining to the eaſtern ſide of St. John de Porto Rico is likewiſe called the Virgin iſles.* The name of Bahama iſlands is likewiſe given, or

* It may be proper to obſerve, that the old Spaniſh navigators, in ſpeaking of the Weſt-India iſlands, frequently diſtinguiſh them into two claſſes, by the terms *Barlovento* and *Sotavento*, from whence our Windward and Leeward iſlands, the Caribbean conſtituting, in ſtrict propriety, the former claſs, and the iſlands of Cuba, Jamaica, Hiſpaniola and Porto-Rico the latter; but the Engliſh mariners appropriate both terms to the Caribbean iſlands only, ſubdividing them according to their ſituation in the courſe of trade; the Windward iſlands, by their arrangement, terminating, I believe, with Martinico, and the Leeward commencing at Dominica and extending to Porto-Rico. *Edwards' Hiſt. Vol. I. p. 5.*

applied,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ACCURATE MA
of the
EST INDIES
With the adjacent
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applied, by the Engliſh, to a cluſter of ſmall iſlands, rocks and reefs of ſand, which ſtretch in a north-weſterly direction for the ſpace of nearly three hundred leagues from the northern coaſt of Hiſpaniola to the Bahama ſtrait oppoſite the Florida ſhore.*

Such of the above iſlands as are worth cultivation now belong to GREAT-BRITAIN, SPAIN, FRANCE, HOLLAND and DENMARK.

The BRITISH claim

Jamaica,
Barbadoes,
St. Chriſtopher's,
Antigua,
Grenada, and the Grenadines,
Dominica,
St. Vincent,
Nevis,
Montſerrat,
Barbuda,
Anguilla,
Bermudas,
The Bahama iſlands.

The SPANIARDS claim

Cuba,
Part of St. Domingo, or Hiſpaniola,
Trinidad,
Margaretta,
Porto-Rico.

The FRENCH claim

Part of St. Domingo,
Martinico,
Guadaloupe,
St. Lucia,
St. Bartholomew, Deſeada,
Marigalante,
Tobago.

The DUTCH claim

St. Euſtatia,
Saba.
Curaſſou, or Curacoa,

The DANES claim

The iſlands of St. Croix,
St. Thomas and St. John's.

The climate in all the Weſt-India iſlands is nearly the ſame, allowing for thoſe accidental differences which the ſeveral ſituations and qualities of the lands themſelves produce. As they lie within the tropics, and the ſun goes quite over their heads, paſſing beyond them to the north, and never returning farther from any of them than about thirty degrees to the ſouth, they would be continually

* The whole group is called by the Spaniards Lucayos.

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ſubjected to an extreme and intolerable heat, if the trade winds, riſing gradually as the ſun gathers ſtrength, did not blow in upon them from the ſea, and refreſh the air in ſuch a manner, as to enable them to attend their concerns even under the meridian ſun. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows ſmartly from the land, as it were from the center, towards the ſea, to all points of the compaſs at once.

By the ſame remarkable Providence in the diſpoſing of things it is, that when the ſun has made a great progreſs towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes in a manner vertical, he draws after him ſuch a vaſt body of clouds, which ſhield them from his direct beams, and diſſolving into rain, cool the air and refreſh the country, thirſty with the long drought, which commonly prevails from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The rains in the Weſt-Indies are like floods of water poured from the clouds with a prodigious impetuoſity; the rivers ſuddenly riſe; new rivers and lakes are formed, and in a ſhort time all the low country is under water.* Hence it is, that the rivers which have their ſource within the tropics, ſwell and overflow their banks at a certain ſeaſon; but ſo miſtaken were the ancients in their idea of the torrid zone, that they imagined it to be dried and ſcorched up with a continual and fervent heat, and to be for that reaſon uninhabitable; when, in reality, ſome of the largeſt rivers of the world have their courſe within its limits, and the moiſture is one of the greateſt inconveniencies of the climate in ſeveral places.

The rains make the only diſtinction of ſeaſons in the Weſt-Indies; the trees are green the whole year round; they have no cold, no froſts, no ſnows, and but rarely ſome hail; the ſtorms of hail are, however, very violent when they happen, and the hailſtones very great and heavy. Whether it be owing to this moiſture, which alone does not ſeem to be a ſufficient cauſe, or to a greater quantity of a ſulphureous acid, which predominates in the air of this country, metals of all kinds that are ſubject to the action of ſuch cauſes ruſt and canker in a very ſhort time; and this cauſe, perhaps, as much as the heat itſelf, contributes to make the climate of the Weſt-Indies unfriendly and unpleaſant to an European conſtitution.

It is in the rainy ſeaſon, principally in the month of Auguſt, more rarely in July and September, that they are aſſaulted by hurricanes,

* Wafer's Journey acroſs the Iſthmus of Darien.

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the moſt terrible calamity to which they are ſubject, as well as the people in the Eaſt-Indies, from the climate; this deſtroys, at a ſtroke, the labours of many years, and proſtrates the moſt exalted hopes of the planter, and at the moment when he thinks himſelf out of danger. It is a ſudden and violent ſtorm of wind, rain, thunder and lightning, attended with a furious ſwelling of the ſeas, and ſometimes with an earthquake; in ſhort, with every circumſtance which the elements can aſſemble that is terrible and deſtructive. Firſt, they ſee a prelude to the enſuing havoc, whole fields of ſugar-canes whirled into the air, and ſcattered over the face of the country. The ſtrongeſt trees of the foreſt are torn up by the roots, and driven about like ſtubble; their windmills are ſwept away in a moment; their utenſils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper boilers, and ſtills of ſeveral hundred weight, are wrenched from the ground and battered to pieces; their houſes are no protection; the roofs are torn off at one blaſt; whilſt the rain, which in an hour raiſes the water five feet, ruſhes in upon them with an irreſiſtible violence.

The grand ſtaple commodity of the Weſt-Indies is ſugar; this commodity was not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China in very early times, from whence was derived the firſt knowledge of it; but the Portugueſe were the firſt who cultivated it in America, and brought it into requeſt, as one of the materials of a very univerſal luxury in Europe. It is not determined, whether the cane, from which this ſubſtance is taken, be a native of America, or brought thither to their colony of Braſil by the Portugueſe, from India and the coaſt of Africa; but, however that may be, in the beginning they made the moſt, as they ſtill do the beſt, ſugars which come to market in this part of the world. The juice within the ſugar cane is the moſt lively, excellent, and the leaſt cloying ſweet in nature, which, ſucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholeſome. From the molaſſes rum is diſtilled, and from the ſcummings of the ſugar a meaner ſpirit is procured. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for their cattle, and the refuſe of the cane, after grinding, ſerves for fire, ſo that no part of this excellent plant is without its uſe.

They compute that, when things are well managed, the rum and molaſſes pay the charges of the plantation, and the ſugars are clear gain. However, a man cannot begin a ſugar plantation of any con-

ſequence, not to mention the purchaſe of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at leaſt five thouſand pounds.

The negroes in the plantations are ſubſiſted at a very eaſy rate this is generally by allotting to each family of them a ſmall portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it; ſome are ſubſiſted in this manner, but others find their negroes a certain portion of Guinea or Indian corn, and to ſome a ſalt herring, or a ſmall portion of bacon or ſalt pork, a day. All the reſt of the charge conſiſts in a cap, a ſhirt, a pair of breeches, and a blanket, and the profit of their labour yields ten or twelve pounds annually. The price of men negroes, upon their firſt arrival, is from thirty to fifty pounds, women and grown boys leſs: but ſuch negro families as are acquainted with the buſineſs of the iſlands generally bring above forty pounds upon an average one with another; and there are inſtances of a ſingle negro man, expert in the buſineſs, bringing one hundred and fifty guineas; and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of ſlaves he poſſeſſes.

BRITISH WEST-INDIES.

JAMAICA.

THIS iſland, the largeſt of the Antilles, and the moſt valuable, lies between 17° and 19° north latitude, and between 76° and 79° weſt longitude, is near one hundred and eighty miles in length, and about ſixty in breadth; it approaches in its figure to an oval. The windward paſſage right before it hath the iſland of Cuba on the weſt, and Hiſpaniola on the eaſt, and is about twenty leagues in breadth.

This iſland was diſcovered by Admiral Chriſtopher Columbus in his ſecond voyage, who landed upon it May 5, 1494, and was ſo much charmed with it, as always to prefer it to the reſt of the iſlands; in conſequence of which, his ſon choſe it for his dukedom. It was ſettled by Juan d'Eſquivel, A. D. 1509, who built the town, which, from the place of his birth, he called Seville, and eleven leagues farther to the eaſt ſtood Melilla. Oriſton was on the ſouth ſide of the iſland, ſeated on what is now called the Blue Fields river. All theſe are gone to decay, but St. Jago, now Spaniſh-Town, is ſtill the capital. The Spaniards held this country one hundred and ſixty years, and in their time the principal commodity was cacoa: they had an immenſe ſtock of horſes, aſſes, and mules, and prodigious quantities of cattle. The Engliſh landed here under Penn and Venables, May 11, 1654, and quickly reduced the iſland. Cacoa was alſo their principal commodity till the old trees decayed, and the new ones did not thrive; and then the planters from Barbadoes introduced ſugar canes, which hath been the great ſtaple ever ſince.

The proſpect of this iſland from the ſea, by reaſon of its conſtant verdure, and many fair and ſafe bays, is wonderfully pleaſant. The coaſt, and for ſome miles within the land, is low; but removing farther, it riſes, and becomes hilly. The whole iſland is divided by a ridge of mountains running eaſt and weſt, ſome riſing to a great height; and theſe are compoſed of rock, and a very hard clay, through which, however, the rains that fall inceſſantly upon them have worn long and deep cavities, which they call gullies. Theſe mountains, however, are far from being unpleaſant, as they are crowned even to their ſummits by a variety of fine trees. There are alſo about a hundred rivers that iſſue from them on both ſides; and though none of them are navigable for any thing but canoes, are both pleaſing and profitable in many other reſpects. The climate, like that of all countries between the tropics, is very warm towards the ſea, and in marſhy places unhealthy; but in more elevated ſituations cooler, and where people live temperately, to the full as wholeſome as any part of the Weſt-Indies. The rains fall heavy for about a fortnight in the months of May and October; and as they are the cauſe of fertility, are ſtiled ſeaſons. Thunder is pretty frequent, and ſometimes ſhowers of hail; but ice or ſnow, except on the tops of the mountains, are never ſeen, but on them, and at no very great height, the air is exceedingly cold.

The moſt eaſtern parts of this ridge are famous under the name of the Blue mountains. This great chain of rugged rocks defends the ſouth ſide of the iſland from thoſe boiſterous north-weſt winds, which might be fatal to their produce. Their ſtreams, though ſmall, ſupply the inhabitants with good water, which is a great bleſſing, as their wells are generally brackiſh. The Spaniards were perſuaded that theſe hills abounded with metals; but we do not find that they wrought any mines, or if they did, it was only copper, of which they ſaid the bells in the church of St. Jago were made. They have ſeveral hot ſprings, which have done great cures. The climate was certainly more temperate before the great earthquake, and the iſland was ſuppoſed to be out of the reach of hurricanes, which ſince then it hath ſeverely felt. The heat, however, is very much tempered by land and ſea breezes, and it is aſſerted, that the hotteſt time of the day is about eight in the morning. In the night, the wind blows from the land on all ſides, ſo that no ſhips can then enter their ports.

In an iſland ſo large as this, which contains above five millions of acres, it may be very reaſonably conceived that there are great variety of ſoils. Some of theſe are deep, black, and rich, and mixed with

with a kind of potter's earth, others ſhallow and ſandy, and ſome of a middle nature. There are many ſavannahs, or wide plains, without ſtones, in which the native Indians had luxuriant crops of maize, which the Spaniards turned into meadows, and kept in them prodigious herds of cattle. Some of theſe ſavannahs are to be met with even amongſt the mountains. All theſe differents ſoils may be juſtly pronounced fertile, as they would certainly be found, if tolerably cultivated, and applied to proper purpoſes. A ſufficient proof of this will ariſe from a very curſory review of the natural and artificial produce of this ſpacious country.

It abounds in maize, pulſe, vegetables of all kinds, meadows of fine graſs, a variety of beautiful flowers, and as great a variety of oranges, lemons, citrons, and other rich fruits. Uſeful animals there are of all ſorts, horſes, aſſes, mules, black cattle of a large ſize, and ſheep, the fleſh of which is well taſted, though their wool is hairy and bad. Here are alſo goats and hogs in great plenty, ſea and river fiſh, wild, tame, and water fowl. Amongſt other commodities of great value, they have the ſugar cane, cacoa, indigo, pimento, cotton, ginger, and coffee; trees for timber and other uſes, ſuch as mahogany, manchineel, white wood, which no worm will touch, cedar, olives, and many more. Beſides theſe, they have fuſtic, red wood, and various other materials for dying. To theſe we may add a multitude of valuable drugs, ſuch as as guaiacum, china ſarſaparilla, caſſia, tamarinds, vanellas, and the prickle pear or opuntia, which produces the cochineal, with no inconſiderable number of odoriferous gums. Near the coaſt they have ſalt ponds, with which they ſupply their own conſumption, and might make any quantity they pleaſed.

As this iſland abounds with rich commodities, it is happy likewiſe in having a number of fine and ſafe ports. Point Morant, the eaſtern extremity of the iſland, hath a fair and commodious bay. Paſſing on to the ſouth there is Port-Royal; on a neck of land which forms one ſide of it, there ſtood once the faireſt town in this iſland; and the harbour is as fine a one as can be wiſhed, capable of holding a thouſand large veſſels, and ſtill the ſtation of the Engliſh ſquadron. Old harbour is alſo a convenient port, ſo is Maccary bay; and there are at leaſt twelve more between this and the weſtern extremity, which is point Negrillo, where ſhips of war lie when there is a war with Spain. On the north ſide there is Orange bay, Cold harbour, Rio Novo, Montego bay, Port Antonio, one of fineſt in the iſland, and ſeveral others.

The north-weſt winds, which ſometimes blow furiouſly on this coaſt, render the country on that ſide leſs fit for canes, but pimento thrives wonderfully; and certainly many other ſtaples might be raiſed in ſmall plantations, which are frequent in Barbadoes, and might be very advantageous here in many reſpects.

The town of Port-Royal ſtood on a point of land running far out into the ſea, narrow, ſandy, and incapable of producing any thing; yet the excellence of the port, the convenience of having ſhips of ſeven hundred tons coming cloſe up to their wharfs, and other advantages, gradually attracted inhabitants in ſuch a manner, that though many of their habitations were built on piles, there were near two thouſand houſes in the town in its moſt flouriſhing ſtate, and which let at high rents. The earthquake by which it was overthrown happened on the 7th of June, 1692, and numbers of people periſhed in it. This earthquake was followed by an epidemic diſeaſe, of which upwards of three thouſand died; yet the place was rebuilt, but the greateſt part was reduced to aſhes by a fire that happened on the 9th of January, 1703, and then the inhabitants removed moſtly to Kingſton. It was, however, rebuilt for the third time, and was raiſing towards its former grandeur, when it was overwhelmed by the ſea, Auguſt 28, 1722; there is, notwithſtanding, a ſmall town there at this day. Hurricanes ſince that time have often happened, and occaſioned terrible devaſtation; one in particular, in 1780, which almoſt overwhelmed the little ſea port town of Savannah la Mar.

The iſland is divided into three counties, Middleſex, Surry, and Cornwall, containing twenty pariſhes, over each of which preſides a magiſtrate, ſtyled a cuſtos; but theſe pariſhes in point of ſize are a kind of hundreds. The whole contains thirty-ſix towns and villages, eighteen churches and chapels, and about twenty-three thouſand white inhabitants.

The adminiſtration of public affairs is by a governor and council of royal appointment, and the repreſentatives of the people in the lower Houſe of Aſſembly. They meet at Spaniſh-town, and things are conducted with great order and dignity. The lieutenant-governor and commander in chief has five thouſand pounds currency, or three thouſand five hundred and ſeventy-one pounds eight ſhillings and ſix-pence three farthings ſterling, beſides which, he has a houſe in Spaniſh-town, a pen or a farm adjoining, and a polink or mountain for proviſions, a ſecretary, an under ſecretary, and a domeſtic chaplain, and other fees, which make his income at leaſt eight thouſand

five

five hundred and fifty pounds currency, or ſix thouſand one hundred pounds ſterling.

The honourable the council conſiſts of a preſident and ten members, with a clerk, at two hundred and ſeventy pounds, chaplain one hundred pounds, uſher of the black rod and meſſenger, two hundred and fifty pounds.

The honourable the aſſembly conſiſts of forty-three members, one of whom is choſen ſpeaker. To this aſſembly belongs a clerk, with one thouſand pounds ſalary; a chaplain, one hundred and fifty pounds; meſſenger, ſeven hundred pounds; deputy, one hundred and forty pounds; and printer, two hundred pounds.

The number of members returned by each pariſh and county are, for Middleſex ſeventeen, viz. St. Catharine three, St. Dorothy two, St. John two, St. Thomas in the Vale two, Clarendon two, Vere two, St. Mary two, St. Ann two: for Surry ſixteen, viz. Kingſton three, Port-Royal three, St. Andrew two, St. David two, St. Thomas in the Eaſt two, Portland two, St. George two: for Cornwall ten, viz. St. Elizabeth two, Weſtmorland two, Hanover two, St. James two, Trelawney two.

The high court of chancery conſiſts of the chancellor (governor for the time being) twenty-five maſters in ordinary, and twenty maſters extraordinary, a regiſter, and clerk of the patents, ſerjeant at arms, and mace-bearer. The court of vice admiralty has a ſole judge, judge ſurrogate, and commiſſary, king's advocate, principal regiſter, marſhal, and a deputy-marſhal. The court of ordinary conſiſts of the ordinary (governor for the time being) and a clerk. The ſupreme court of judicature has a chief juſtice and ſixteen aſſiſtant judges, attorney-general, clerk of the courts, clerk of the crown, ſolicitor of the crown, thirty-three commiſſioners for taking affidavits, a provoſt-marſhal-general, and eight deputies, eighteen barriſters, beſides the attorney-general and advocate-general, and upwards of one hundred and twenty practiſing attornies at law.

The trade of this iſland will beſt appear by the quantity of ſhipping, and the number of ſeamen to which it gives employment, and the nature and quantity of its exports. The following is an account from the books of the inſpector-general of Great-Britain, of the number of veſſels of all kinds there regiſtered, tonnage, and number of men, which cleared from the ſeveral ports of entry in Jamaica, in the year 1787, excluſive of coaſting ſloops, wherries, &c.

	Number of Veſſels.	Tonnage.	Men.
For Great-Britain	242	63471	7748
Ireland	10	1231	91
American States	133	13041	893
Britiſh American Colonies	66	6133	449
Foreign Weſt-Indies	22	1903	155
Africa	1	109	8
Total	474	85888	9344

It muſt, however, be obſerved, that as many of the veſſels clearing for America and the foreign Weſt-Indies make two or more voyages in the year, it is uſual, in computing the real number of thoſe veſſels, their tonnage and men, to deduct one third from the official numbers. With this correction the total to all parts is four hundred veſſels, containing ſeventy-eight thouſand eight hundred and ſixty-two tons, navigated by eight thouſand eight hundred and forty-five men.

The exports for the ſame year are given on the ſame authority, as follows:

Inſpector

Inspector-General's Account of the JAMAICA EXPORTS, between the 5th of January, 1787, and the 5th of January, 1788, with the Value in Sterling Money, according to the Prices then current at the London Market.

To what PARTS.	Sugar. Cwt. qrs. lbs.	Rum. Gallons.	Melasses. Gallons.	Pimento. lbs.	Coffee. Cwt. qrs. lbs.	Cotton Wool. lbs.	Indigo. lbs.
To Great-Britain . .	824,706 2 25	1,890,540	2,316	606,994	3,706 3 27	1,899,967	27,223
Ireland	6,829 0 0	106,700	—	2,800	10 0 0	5,500	400
American States .	6,167 0 0	327,325	1,800	6,450	2,566 0 2	—	—
Br. Amer. Colonies	2,822 0 0	207,660	2,300	200	110 3 8	1,000	—
Foreign W. Indies	24 0 0	2,200	—	—	2 0 0	—	—
Africa	—	8,600	—	—	—	—	—
Totals	840,548 2 25	2,543,025	6,416	616,444	6,295 3 9	1,906,467	27,623

(Continued.)

To what PARTS.	Ginger. Cwt. qrs. lbs.	Cacoa. Cwt. qrs. lbs.	Tobacco. lbs.	Mahogany. Tons. Cwt.	Logwood. Tons.	Miscellaneous Articles. Value.	Total Value. £. s. d.
To Great-Britain . .	3,553 2 15	82 3 15	18,140	5,783 4	6,701	147,286l.3s.4d	2,022,814 7 10
Ireland	918 0 0	—	—	95 0	—	—	25,778 10 0
American States .	339 0 0	—	—	—	—	—	60,095 18 0
Br. Amer. Colonies	4 0 0	—	—	—	—	—	26,538 2 5
Foreign W. Indies	2 0 0	—	—	—	—	—	355 19 0
Africa	—	—	—	—	—	—	860 0 0
Totals	4,816 2 15	82 3 15	18,140	5,878 4	6,701	—	2,136,442 17 3

But it muſt be noted, that a conſiderable part of the cotton, indigo, tobacco, mahogany, dye-woods, and miſcellaneous articles, included in the preceding account, is the produce of the foreign Weſt-Indies imported into Jamaica, partly under the free-port law, and partly in ſmall Britiſh veſſels employed in a contraband traffic with the Spaniſh American territories, payment of which is made chiefly in Britiſh manufactures and negroes; and conſiderable quantities of bullion, obtained by the ſame means, are annually remitted to Great-Britain, of which no preciſe accounts can be procured.

The General Account of IMPORTS into Jamaica will ſtand nearly as follows, viz.

IMPORTS INTO JAMAICA.

		£. s. d.	£. s. d.
From Great-Britain, direct, according to a return of the Inſpector-General for 1787.	Britiſh manufactures	686,657 2 3	
	Foreign merchandiſe	72,275 3 1	
			758,932 5 4
From Ireland, allowing a moiety of the whole import to the Britiſh Weſt-Indies, conſiſting of manufactures and ſalted proviſions to the amount of 350,000l.			175,000 0 0
From Africa, five thouſand three hundred and forty-five negroes,* at 40l. ſterling each—(this is wholly a Britiſh trade, carried on in ſhips from England)			213,800 0 0
From the Britiſh Colonies in America, including about twenty thouſand quintals of ſalted cod from Newfoundland			30,000 0 0
From the United States, Indian corn, wheat, flour, rice, lumber, ſtaves, &c. imported in Britiſh ſhips			90,000 0 0
From Madeira and Teneriffe, in ſhips trading circuitouſly from Great-Britain, five hundred pipes of wine, excluſive of wines for re-exportation, at 30l. ſterling the pipe			15,000 0 0
			1,282,732 5 4

* Being an average of the whole number imported and retained in the iſland for ten years, 1778 to 1787, as returned by the inſpector-general.

From

	£.	s.	d.
Brought over -	1,282,732	5	4
From the foreign Weſt-Indies, under the free-port law, &c. calculated on an average of three years *	150,000	0	0
£.	1,432,732	5	4

* From returns of the inſpector-general. The following are the particulars for the year 1787.

Cotton wool		194,000	lbs.
Cacao		64,750	lbs.
Cattle, viz.			
Aſſes	43		
Horſes	233		
Mules	585		
Oxen	243		
Sheep	98		
		1,202	No.
Dying woods		5,077	Tons.
Gum guaiacum		79	Barrels.
Hides		4,537	No.
Indigo		4,663	lbs.
Mahogany		9,993	Planks.
Tortoiſe ſhell		655	lbs.
Dollars		53,850	No.

A RETURN of the number of SUGAR PLANTATIONS in the iſland of JAMAICA, and the NEGRO SLAVES thereon, on the 28th of March, 1789, diſtinguiſhing the ſeveral Pariſhes.

	No. of Sugar Plant.	Negroes thereon.	Plantations.	Total Number of Negroes in each County.	Total of Sugar Plantations.	Total of Negroes employed in cultivation of Sugar.
County of Middleſex.						
Pariſh of St. Mary	63	12,065				
Do. St. Anne	30	4,908				
Do. St. John	21	3,713				
Do. St. Dorothy	12	1,776				
Do. St. Tho. in the Vale	33	5,327				
Do. Clarendon	56	10,150				
Do. Vere	26	5,279				
Do. St. Catharine	3	408				
Total in the County of Middleſex			244	43,626		
County of Surry.						
Pariſh of St. Andrew	24	3,540				
Do. St. George	14	2,795				
Do. Portland	23	2,968				
Do. Port-Royal	3	358				
Do. St. David	12	1,890				
Do. St. Tho. in the Eaſt	83	15,786				
Do. Kingſton						
Total in the County of Surry			159	27,337		
County of Cornwall.						
Pariſh of Trelawney	83	15,692				
Do. St. James	67	12,482				
Do. Hanover	69	13,330				
Do. Weſtmoreland	62	11,219				
Do. St. Elizabeth	26	5,112				
Total in the County of Cornwall			307	57,835		
Total in Jamaica					710	128,798

BAR-

BARBADOES.

BARBADOES, the moſt eaſterly of all the Caribbee iſlands, ſubject to Great-Britain, and, according to the beſt geographers, lying between 59° 50′ and 62° 2′ of weſt longitude, and between 12° 56′ and 13° 16′ of north latitude. Its extent is not certainly known; the moſt general opinion is, that it is twenty-five miles from north to ſouth, and fifteen from eaſt to weſt; but theſe menſurations are ſubject to ſo many difficulties and uncertainties, that it will perhaps convey a more adequate idea of this iſland to tell the reader, that in reality it does not contain above one hundred and ſeven thouſand acres. The climate is hot but not unwholeſome, the heat being qualified by ſea breezes; and a temperate regimen renders this iſland as ſafe to live in as any climate ſouth of Great-Britain; and, according to the opinion of many, as even Great-Britain itſelf. This iſland has on its eaſt ſide two ſtreams that are called rivers, and in the middle is ſaid to have a bituminous ſpring, which ſends forth a liquor like tar, and ſerves for the ſame uſes as pitch or lamp oil. The iſland abounds in wells of good water, and has ſeveral reſervoirs for rain water. Some parts of the ſoil are ſaid to be hollowed into caves, ſome of them capable of containing three hundred people. Theſe are imagined to have been the lurking-places of runaway negroes, but may as probably be natural excavations. The woods that formerly grew upon the iſland have been all cut down, and the ground converted into ſugar plantations. When thoſe plantations were firſt formed, the ſoil was prodigiouſly fertile, but has ſince been worn out, inſomuch, that about the year 1730, the planters were obliged to raiſe cattle for the ſake of their dung, by which means the profit of their plantations was reduced to leſs than a tenth of its uſual value. Notwithſtanding the ſmallneſs of Barbadoes, its ſoil is different, being in ſome places ſandy and light, and others rich, and in others ſpungy, but all of it is cultivated according to its proper nature, ſo that the iſland preſents to the eye the moſt beauti-

ful appearance that can be imagined. Oranges and lemons grow in Barbadoes in great plenty, and in their utmoſt perfection. The lemon juice here has a peculiar fragrancy. The citrons of Barbadoes afford the beſt drams and ſweetmeats of any in the world, the Barbadoes ladies excelling in the art of preſerving the rind of the citron fruit. The juice of the limes, or dwarf lemons, is the moſt agreeable ſouring we know, and great quantities of it have of late been imported into Britain and Ireland. The pine apple is alſo a native of Barbadoes, and grows there to much greater perfection than it can be made to do in Europe by any artificial means. A vaſt number of different trees peculiar to the climate are alſo found to flouriſh in Barbadoes in great perfection, ſuch as the aloe, mangrove, calabaſh, cedar, cotton, maſtic, &c. Here likewiſe are produced ſome ſenſitive plants, with a good deal of garden ſtuff, which is common in other places. In ſhort, a native of the fineſt, the richeſt, and moſt diverſified country in Europe, can hardly form an idea of the variety of delicious, and at the ſame time nutritive vegetable productions with which the iſland abounds.

When Barbadoes was firſt diſcovered by the Engliſh, few or no quadrupeds were found upon it, except hogs, which had been left there by the Portugueſe. For convenience of carriage to the ſea ſide, ſome of the planters at firſt procured camels, which undoubtedly would in all reſpects have been preferable to horſes for their ſugar and other works; but the nature of the climate diſagreeing with that animal, it was found impoſſible to preſerve the breed. They then applied for horſes to Old and New-England; from the former they had thoſe that were fit for ſhow and draught; from the latter thoſe that were proper for mounting their militia, and for the ſaddle. They had likewiſe ſome of an inferior breed from Curaſſao, and other ſettlements. They are reported to have had their firſt breed of black cattle from Bonaviſta, and the iſle of May; they now breed upon the iſland, and often do the work of horſes. Their aſſes are very ſerviceable in carrying burdens to and from the plantations. The hogs of Barbadoes are finer eating than thoſe of Britain, but the few ſheep they have are not near ſo good. They likewiſe have goats, which, when young, are excellent food. Raccoons and monkeys are alſo found here in great abundance. A variety of birds are produced on Barbadoes, of which the humming bird is the moſt remarkable. Wild fowl do not often frequent this iſland, but ſometimes teal are found near their ponds. A bird which they call

the

the man of war, is ſaid to meet ſhips at twenty leagues from land, and their return is, to the inhabitants, a ſure ſign of the arrival of theſe ſhips. When the wind blows from the ſouth and ſouth-weſt, they have flocks of curlews, plovers, ſnipes, wild pigeons, and wild ducks. The wild pigeons are very fat and plentful at ſuch ſeaſons, and rather larger than thoſe of England. The tame pigeons, pullets, ducks, and poultry of all kinds, that are bred at Barbadoes, have alſo a fine flavour, and are accounted more delicious than thoſe of Europe. Their rabbits are ſcarce; they have no hares, and if they have deer of any kind, they are kept as curioſities. The inſects of Barbadoes are not venomous, nor do either their ſnakes or their ſcorpions ever ſting. The muſkettoes are troubleſome, and bite, but are more tolerable in Barbadoes than on the continent. Various other inſects are found on the iſland, ſome of which are troubleſome, but in no greater degree than thoſe that are produced by every warm ſummer in England. Barbadoes is well ſupplied with fiſh, and ſome caught in the ſea ſurrounding it are almoſt peculiar to itſelf, ſuch as the parrot fiſh, ſnappers, grey cavallos, terbums, and coney fiſh. The mullets, lobſters, and crabs caught here are excellent; and the green turtle is, perhaps, the greateſt delicacy that ancient or modern luxury can boaſt of. At Barbadoes this delicious ſhell fiſh ſeldom ſells for leſs than a ſhilling a pound, and often for more. There is found in this iſland a kind of land crab, which eats herbs wherever it can find them, and ſhelters itſelf in houſes and hollow trees. According to report, they are a ſhell fiſh of paſſage, for in March they travel to the ſea in great numbers.

The inhabitants may be reduced to three claſſes, viz. the maſters, the white ſervants, and the blacks. The former are either Engliſh, Scots, or Iriſh; but the great encouragement given by the government to the peopling of this and other Weſt-Indian iſlands, induced ſome Dutch, French, Portugueſe, and Jews, to ſettle among them; by which, after a certain time, they acquire the rights of naturalization in Great-Britain. The white ſervants, whether by covenant or purchaſe, lead more eaſy lives than the day-labourers in England, and when they come to be overſeers, their wages and other allowances are conſiderable. The manners of the white inhabitants in general are the ſame as in moſt polite towns and countries in Europe. The capital of the iſland is Bridge-town.

When

When the Engliſh, ſome time after the year 1625, firſt landed here, they found it the moſt deſtitute place they had hitherto viſited. It had not the leaſt appearance of ever having been peopled even by ſavages. There was no kind of beaſts of paſture or of prey, no fruit, no herb, no root fit for ſupporting the life of man. Yet, as the climate was ſo good, and the ſoil appeared fertile, ſome gentlemen of ſmall fortune in England reſolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were ſo large, and of a wood ſo hard and ſtubborn, that it was with great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was neceſſary for their ſubſiſtence. By unremitting perſeverance, however, they brought it to yield them a tolerable ſupport; and they found that cotton and indigo agreed well with the ſoil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, anſwered tolerably. Theſe proſpects, together with the ſtorm between king and parliament, which was beginning to break out in England, induced many new adventurers to tranſport themſelves into this iſland. And what is extremely remarkable, ſo great was the increaſe of people in Barbadoes, twenty-five years after its firſt ſettlement, that in 1650, it contained more than fifty thouſand whites, and a much greater number of negro and Indian ſlaves. The latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour; for they ſeized upon all thoſe unhappy men, without any pretence, in the neighbouring iſlands, and carried them into ſlavery; a practice which has rendered the Caribbee Indians irreconcileable to us ever ſince. They had begun a little before this to cultivate ſugar, which ſoon rendered them extremely wealthy. The number of ſlaves therefore was ſtill augmented; and in 1676 it is ſuppoſed that their number amounted to one hundred thouſand, which, together with fifty thouſand whites, make one hundred and fifty thouſand on this ſmall ſpot; a degree of population unknown in Holland, in China, or any other part of the world moſt renowned for numbers. At the above period, Barbadoes employed four hundred ſail of ſhips, one with another, of one hundred and fifty tons, in their trade. Their annual exports in ſugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron-water, were above thirty-five thouſand pounds, and their circulating caſh at home was two hundred thouſand pounds. Such was the increaſe of population, trade, and wealth, in the courſe of fifty years. But ſince that time this iſland has been much on the decline, which is to be attributed partly to the growth of the French ſugar colonies, and partly to our own eſtabliſhments in the neighbouring iſles. Their

numbers at preſent are ſaid to be twenty thouſand whites, and one hundred thouſand ſlaves. Their commerce conſiſts of the ſame articles as formerly, though they deal in them to leſs extent.

Barbadoes is divided into five diſtricts and eleven pariſhes, and contains four towns, viz. Bridge-town, Oſtins, or Charles-town, St. James's, formerly called the Hole, and Speight's-town. Bridge-town, the capital, before it was deſtroyed by the fires of 1766, conſiſted of about fifteen hundred houſes, which were moſtly built of brick; and it is ſtill the ſeat of government, and may be called the chief reſidence of the governor, who is provided with a country villa called Pilgrims, ſituated within a mile of it; his ſalary was raiſed by Queen Anne from twelve hundred to two thouſand pounds per ann. the whole of which is paid out of the exchequer, and charged to the account of the four and a half per cent. duty. The form of the government of this iſland ſo very nearly reſembles that of Jamaica, which has already been deſcribed, that it is unneceſſary to enter into detail, except to obſerve that the council is compoſed of twelve members, and the aſſembly of twenty-two. The moſt important variation reſpects the court of chancery, which in Barbadoes is conſtituted of the governor and council, whereas in Jamaica the governor is ſole chancellor. On the other hand, in Barbadoes, the governor ſits in council, even when the latter are acting in a legiſlative capacity: this in Jamaica would be conſidered improper and unconſtitutional. It may alſo be obſerved, that the courts of grand ſeſſions, common pleas and exchequer in Barbadoes, are diſtinct from each other, and not as in Jamaica, united and blended in one ſupreme court of judicature.

We ſhall cloſe our account of Barbadoes with the following authentic document.

An

An ACCOUNT of the Number of Veſſels, their Tonnage and Number of Men, including their repeated Voyages, that cleared Outwards from the Iſland of BARBADOES to all Parts of the World, between the 5th of January, 1787, and the 5th of January, 1788, with the Species, Quantities, and Value of their Cargoes, according to the actual Prices in London, as made out by the Inſpector-General of Great-Britain.

Whither bound.	Shipping.			Sugar.	Rum.	Melaſſes.	Ginger.	Cotton.	Fuſtic.	Miſcellaneous Articles.	Total Value in Sterling Money agreeably to the London Market.
	No.	Tons.	Men.	Cwt. qrs. lbs.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Cwt. qrs. lb.	lbs.	Cwt. qr. lb.	Value.	
										£. s. d.	£. s. d.
To Great-Britain -	66	11,221	833	130,242 0 16	28,689	1,089	5,437 2 18	2,640,725	240 0 5	45,948 19 1	486,570 4 8
Ireland - - -	3	317	28	2,114 0 0	25,200	—	124 0 0	65,250	5 0 0	35 7 10	11,521 15 10
American States -	54	6,416	379	2,668 0 0	213,400	700	—	—	—	38 5 0	23,217 13 4
Br. Am. Colonies	41	3,182	237	2,742 0 0	146,100	11,700	—	—	—	69 16 0	18,080 6 0
Foreign Weſt-Indies	78	5,694	458	—	2,000	—	—	—	—	32 0 0	207 0 0
Africa - - -	1	87	7	—	100	—	—	—	—	—	8 15 0
Total -	243	26,917	1,942	137,766 0 16	415,489	13,489	5,561 2 18	2,705,975	245 0 5	46,124 7 11	539,605 14 10

SAINT CHRISTOPHER's.

THIS iſland, commonly called St. Kitt's, is ſituated in 62° weſt longitude and 17° north latitude, about fourteen leagues from Antigua; is twenty miles long and about ſeven broad; it was diſcovered in November, 1493, by Columbus, and named after himſelf, but was never planted or poſſeſſed by the Spaniards: it is in reality the oldeſt of all the Britiſh ſettlements in the Weſt-Indies, and the common mother both of the French and Engliſh ſettlements in the Caribbean iſlands. It was firſt ſettled by a Mr. Warner and fourteen other perſons in 1623. Mr. Warner, a reſpectable gentleman, had accompanied Capt. North in a voyage to Surinam, where he had become acquainted with a Capt. Painton, a very experienced ſeaman, who ſuggeſted to him the advantages of a ſettlement on one of the Weſt-India iſlands deſerted by the Spaniards, and pointed out this as eligible for ſuch an undertaking. Mr. Warner returning to Europe in 1620, determined to carry this project into execution. He accordingly ſailed with the above party to Virginia, from whence he took his paſſage to St. Chriſtopher's, where he arrived in the month of January, 1623, and by the month of September following had raiſed a good crop of tobacco, which they propoſed to make their ſtaple commodity.

Unfortunately, their plantations were deſtroyed the latter end of the year by an hurricane; in conſequence of which calamity, Mr. Warner returned to England, and obtained the powerful patronage of the Earl of Carliſle, who cauſed a ſhip to be fitted out and laden with all kinds of neceſſaries, which arrived on the 18th of May following; and thus ſaved a ſettlement which had otherwiſe died in its infancy. Warner himſelf did not, however, return till the year 1625, when he carried with him a large number of other perſons. About this time, and, according to ſome writers, on the ſame day with Warner, arrived D'Eſnambuc, the captain of, and about thirty hardy veterans belonging to, a French privateer, which had been much damaged in an engagement with a Spaniſh galleon; they were received kindly by the Engliſh, and remained with them on the

iſland, from whence, by their united endeavours, they drove the original inhabitants.

After this exploit, theſe two leaders returned to their reſpective countries to ſolicit ſuccours, and bringing with them the name of conquerors, they met with every encouragement. Warner was knighted, and, by the influence of his patron, ſent back in 1626, with four hundred freſh recruits, amply furniſhed with neceſſaries of all kinds. D'Eſnambuc obtained from Cardinal Richelieu, the then miniſter of France, the eſtabliſhment of a ſeparate company, to trade with this and ſome other iſlands. Subſcriptions, however, did not come in very rapid, and the ſhips ſent out by the new company were ſo badly provided, that of five hundred and thirty-two new ſettlers, who ſailed from France in 1627, the greater part periſhed miſerably at ſea for want of food. The Engliſh received the ſurvivors, and, to prevent conteſts about limits, the commanders of each nation divided the iſland as equally as poſſible among their reſpective followers. The iſland thus continued in the hands of the French and Engliſh until the peace of Utrecht, when it was finally ceded to Great-Britain. We are not, however, to ſuppoſe, that during this period harmony and good-will prevailed; on the contrary, the Engliſh were three times driven off the iſland, and their plantations laid waſte: nor were the French much leſs ſufferers. Such are the conſequences of thoſe curſed ſyſtems or maxims of government, which beget a ſpirit of enmity againſt all thoſe who are of a different nation. After the peace of Utrecht, the French poſſeſſions, a few excepted, were ſold for the benefit of the Engliſh government; and in 1783, eighty thouſand pounds of the money was granted as a marriage portion to the Princeſs Anne, who was betrothed to the Prince of Orange. In 1782, it was attacked and taken by the French, but again ceded to Britain at the peace of 1783.

About one-half of this iſland is ſuppoſed to be unfit for cultivation, the interior parts conſiſting of many high and barren mountains, between which are horrid precipices and thick woods. The loftieſt mountain, which is evidently a decayed volcano, is called mount Miſery; it riſes three thouſand ſeven hundred and eleven feet perpendicular height from the ſea. Nature has, however, made a recompenſe for the ſterility of the mountains by the fertility of the plains. The ſoil is a dark grey loam, very light and porous, and is ſuppoſed by Mr. Edwards * to be the production of ſubterraneous

* Vide Hiſtory of Weſt-Indies, vol. i. p. 429.

fires

fires finely incorporated with a pure loam or virgin mould; this ſoil is peculiarly favourable to the culture of ſugar. In the ſouth-weſt part of the iſland hot ſulphureous ſprings are found at the foot of ſome of the mountains: the air is, on the whole, ſalubrious, but the iſland is ſubject to hurricanes.

St. Chriſtopher's is divided into nine pariſhes, and contains four towns and hamlets, viz. Baſſeterre, (the capital) Sandy point, Old road, and Deep bay; of theſe, Baſſeterre and Sandy point are ports of entry eſtabliſhed by law. The fortifications on this iſland are Charles fort and Brimſtone hill near Sandy point, three batteries at Baſſeterre, one at Fig-tree bay, another at Palmeton point, and ſome others of little importance.

St. Chriſtopher's contributes twelve hundred pounds currency per annum towards the ſupport of the governor-general, beſides the perquiſites of his office, which in war time are very conſiderable: the council conſiſts of ten members; the houſe of aſſembly of twenty-four repreſentatives, of whom fifteen make a quorum. The qualification for a repreſentative is a freehold of forty acres of land, or a houſe worth forty pounds per annum; for an elector, a freehold of ten pounds per annum: the governor is chancellor by office, and ſits alone on the bench. The juriſdiction of the courts of king's bench and common pleas centers in one ſuperior court, wherein juſtice is adminiſtered by a chief juſtice and four aſſiſtant judges, the former appointed by the king, the latter by the governor in the king's name; they all hold their offices during pleaſure. The office of the chief judge is worth about ſix hundred pounds per annum; thoſe of the aſſiſtant judges trifling. The preſent number of inhabitants are eſtimated at four thouſand white inhabitants, three hundred free blacks and mulattoes, and about twenty-ſix thouſand ſlaves.

As in the other Britiſh iſlands in the neighbourhood, all the white males from ſixteen to ſixty are obliged to enliſt in the militia; they ſerve without pay, and form two regiments of about three hundred effective men each: theſe, with a company of free blacks, conſtituted the whole force of the iſland before the laſt war. Since that period, a ſmall addition of Britiſh troops have, we believe, in general been kept there.

ANTIGUA.

ANTIGUA is ſituated about twenty leagues eaſt of St. Chriſtopher's, in weſt longitude 62° 5′, and north latitude 17° 30′. It is about fifty miles in circumference, and is reckoned the largeſt of all the Britiſh Leeward iſlands.

This iſland has neither ſtream nor ſpring of *freſh* water; this inconvience, which rendered it uninhabitable to the Caribbees, deterred for ſome time Europeans from attempting a permanent eſtabliſhment upon it; but few, if any, are the obſtacles of Nature, which civiliſed man will not overcome, more eſpecially when intereſt ſpurs him on. The ſoil of Antigua was found to be fertile, and it ſoon preſented itſelf to the view of enterpriſing genius, that by means of ciſterns the neceſſity of ſprings and ſtreams might be ſuperſeded. Hence, as early as 1632, a ſon of Sir Thomas Warner, and a number of other Engliſhmen, ſettled here, and began the cultivation of tobacco. In 1674, Colonel Codrington, of Barbadoes, removed to this iſland, and ſucceeded ſo well in the culture of ſugar, that, animated by his example, and aided by his experience, many others engaged in the ſame line of buſineſs. A few years after, Mr. Codrington was declared captain-general and commander in chief of the Leeward iſlands, and carried his attention to their welfare farther than perhaps any other governor either before or ſince has done, and the good effects of his wiſdom and attention were ſoon manifeſt.

Antigua, in particular, had ſo far increaſed, that in 1690, when General Codrington headed an expedition againſt the French ſettlement at St. Chriſtopher's, it furniſhed eight hundred effective men. Mr. Codrington dying in 1698, was ſucceeded by his ſon Chriſtopher, who, purſuing his father's ſteps, held the government till 1704, when he was ſuperſeded by Sir William Matthews, who died ſoon after his arrival. Queen Anne then beſtowed the government on Daniel Park, Eſq. a man who for debauchery, villany and deſpotiſm, though he may have been equalled, was certainly never excelled. His government laſted till Dec. 1710, when his oppreſſions

aroufed

aroufed the inhabitants to refiftance: he was feized by the enraged multitude and torn to pieces, and his reeking limbs fcattered about the ftreet. An inquiry was inftituted with refpect to the perpetration of this act; the people of England were divided, fome looking upon his death as an act of rebellion againft the crown, others viewing it as a juft facrifice to liberty. The government, however, after a full inquiry, were fo fully fatisfied of Park's guilty and illegal conduct, that, much to their honour, they iffued a general pardon for all perfons concerned in his death, and, fome time afterwards, fanctioned the promotion of two of the principal perpetrators to feats in the council.

The principal article raifed in this ifland is fugar; befides which, cotton-wool and tobacco, is raifed in confiderable quantities, and likewife provifions to a confiderable amount in favourable years.

Crops here are very unequal, and it is exceeding difficult to furnifh an average: in 1779, there was fhipped three thoufand three hundred and eighty-two hogfheads and five hundred and feventy-nine tierces of fugar: in 1782, the crop was fifteen thoufand one hundred and two hogfheads and one thoufand fix hundred and three tierces; in 1770, 1773, and 1778, there were no crops of any kind, owing to long continued drought. The ifland is progreffively decreafing in produce and population. The laft accurate returns to government were made in the year 1774, when the white inhabitants of all ages and fexes were two thoufand five hundred and ninety, and the enflaved blacks thirty-feven thoufand eight hundred and eight: feventeen thoufand hogfheads of fugar of fixteen hundred weight each, are deemed, on the whole, a good faving crop; as one-half of the canes only are cut annually, this is about an hogfhead to the acre.

Antigua is divided into fix parifhes and eleven diftricts, and contains fix towns and villages. St. John's, which is the capital, Parham, Falmouth, Willoughby bay, Old road, and James's fort; the two firft are the legal ports of entry. The ifland has many excellent harbours, particularly Engliſh harbour and St. John's, at the former of which there is a dock-yard and arfenal eftablifhed by the Engliſh government.

The military eftablifhment here is two regiments of infantry and two of militia, befides which there is a fquadron of dragoons and a battalion of artillery raifed in the ifland. The governor, or captain-general, of the Leeward iflands, though directed by his inftructions to vifit each ifland within his government, is generally ſta-

tionary at Antigua: in hearing the cauſes from the other iſlands he ſits alone, but in cauſes ariſing within the iſland he is aſſiſted by a council; and by an act of aſſembly, ſanctioned by the crown, the preſident and a majority of the council may hear and determine chancery cauſes during the abſence of the governor-general; beſides this court, there is a court of King's Bench, a court of Common Pleas, and a court of Exchequer.

The legiſlature of Antigua conſiſts of the commander in chief, a council of twelve members, and an aſſembly of twenty-five. The legiſlature of Antigua ſet the firſt example of a melioration of the criminal law reſpecting negro ſlaves, by allowing them a trial by jury, &c. And the inhabitants, ſtill more to their honour, have encouraged the propagation of the goſpel among their ſlaves.

GRENADA,

AND THE

GRENADINES.

GRENADA lies in weſt longitude 61° 40′, north latitude 12° 0′. It is the laſt of the windward Caribbees, and lies thirty leagues north of New-Andaluſia, on the continent. According to ſome, it is twenty-four leagues in compaſs; according to others, only twenty-two; and it is ſaid to be thirty miles in length, and in ſome places fifteen in breadth. The iſland abounds with wild game and fiſh; it produces alſo very fine timber, but the cocoa tree is obſerved not to thrive here ſo well as in the other iſlands. A lake on a high mountain, about the middle of the iſland, ſupplies it with freſh water ſtreams. Several bays and harbours lie round the iſland, ſome of which might be fortified to great advantage; ſo that it is very convenient for ſhipping, not being ſubject to hurricanes. The ſoil is capable of producing tobacco, ſugar, indigo, peaſe and millet.

Columbus found it inhabited by a fierce, warlike people, who were left in quiet poſſeſſion of the iſland till 1650; though, according to others, in 1638, M. Poincy, a Frenchman, attempted to make a ſettlement in Grenada, but was driven off by the Caribbeans, who reſorted to this iſland in greater numbers than to the neighbouring ones, probably on account of the game with which it abounded. In 1650, however, Monſ. Parquet, governor of Martinico, carried over from that iſland two hundred men, furniſhed with preſents to reconcile the ſavages to them; but with arms to ſubdue them, in caſe they ſhould prove untractable. The ſavages are ſaid to have been frightened into ſubmiſſion by the number of Frenchmen; but, according to ſome French writers, the chief not only welcomed the new-comers, but, in conſideration of ſome knives, hatchets, ſciſſars, and other toys, yielded to Parquet the ſovereignty of the iſland, reſerving to themſelves their own habitations. The Abbé Raynal informs us, that theſe firſt French coloniſts, imagining they had purchaſed

chaſed the iſland by theſe trifles, aſſumed the ſovereignty, and ſoon acted as tyrants. The Caribs, unable to contend with them by force, took their uſual method of murdering all thoſe whom they found in a defenceleſs ſtate. This produced a war; and the French ſettlers, having received a reinforcement of three hundred men from Martinico, forced the ſavages to retire to a mountain; from whence, after exhauſting all their arrows, they rolled down great logs of wood on their enemies. Here they were joined by other ſavages from the neighbouring iſlands, and again attacked the French, but were defeated anew; and were at laſt driven to ſuch deſperation, that forty of them, who had eſcaped from the ſlaughter, jumped from a precipice into the ſea, where they all periſhed, rather than fall into the hands of their implacable enemies. From thence the rock was called *le morne des ſauteurs*, or, "the hill of the leapers," which name it ſtill retains. The French then deſtroyed the habitations and all the proviſions of the ſavages; but freſh ſupplies of the Caribbeans arriving, the war was renewed with great vigour, and great numbers of the French were killed. Upon this they reſolved totally to exterminate the natives; and having accordingly attacked the ſavages unawares, they inhumanly put to death the women and children, as well as the men; burning all their boats and canoes, to cut off alſo communication between the few ſurvivors and the neighbouring iſlands.* Notwithſtanding all theſe barbarous precautions, however, the Caribbees proved the irreconcileable enemies of the French; and their frequent inſurrections at laſt obliged Parquet to ſell all his property in the iſland to the Count de Cerillac in 1657.† The new proprietor, who purchaſed Parquet's property for thirty thouſand crowns, ſent thither a perſon of brutal manners to govern the iſland. He behaved with ſuch inſupportable tyranny, that moſt of the coloniſts retired to Martinico; and the few who remained condemned him to death after a formal trial. In the whole court

* Of the manner in which theſe perſons carried on the war againſt the natives, a pretty correct eſtimate may be formed from the following circumſtance: a beautiful young girl, of twelve or thirteen years of age, who was taken alive, became the object of diſpute between two of the French officers; each of them claiming her as his prize, a third coming up, put an end to the conteſt by ſhooting the girl through the head.

† Mr. Edwards attributes this ſale to another cauſe; he ſays, the Caribbees were totally extinct, and that it was the great expenſe which Parquet had been at in conquering the iſland which obliged him to ſell it.

of

of juſtice that tried this miſcreant, there was only one man (called Archangeli) who could write. A farrier was the perſon who impeached; and he, inſtead of the ſignatures, ſealed with a horſe-ſhoe; and Archangeli, who performed the office of clerk, wrote round it theſe words in French, "Mark of Mr. de la Brie, counſel for the court."

Cerrilac receiving, as ſuppoſed, but little profit from his capital, conveyed all his rights, &c. to the French Weſt-India company; the charter of which being aboliſhed in 1674, the iſland became veſted in the crown of France. Under the various calamities to which this iſland was ſubjected, it will not be ſuppoſed to have made much progreſs. By an account taken in 1700, there were at Grenada no more than two hundred and fifty-one white people, fifty-three free ſavages or mulattoes, and five hundred and twenty-five ſlaves. The uſeful animals were reduced to ſixty-four horſes and five hundred and ſixty-nine head of horned cattle. The whole culture conſiſted of three plantations of ſugar, and fifty-two of indigo.

This unfavourable ſtate of the affairs of Grenada was changed in 1714. The change was owing to the flouriſhing condition of Martinico. The richeſt of the ſhips from that iſland were ſent to the Spaniſh coaſts, and in their way touched at Grenada to take in refreſhments. The trading privateers, who undertook this navigation, taught the people of that iſland the value of their ſoil, which only required cultivation. Some traders furniſhed the inhabitants with ſlaves and utenſils to erect ſugar plantations. An open account was eſtabliſhed between the two colonies. Grenada was clearing its debts gradually by its rich produce, and the balance was on the point of being cloſed, when the war in 1744 interrupted the communication between the two iſlands, and at the ſame time ſtopped the progreſs of the ſugar plantations. This loſs was ſupplied by the culture of coffee, which was purſued during the hoſtilities with all the activity and eagerneſs that induſtry could inſpire. The peace of 1748 revived all the labours, and opened all the former ſources of wealth. In 1753, the population of Grenada conſiſted of one thouſand two hundred and ſixty-two white people, one hundred and ſeventy-five free negroes, and eleven thouſand nine hundred and ninety-one ſlaves. The cattle amounted to two thouſand two hundred and ninety-eight horſes or mules, two thouſand four hundred and fifty-ſix head of horned cattle, three thouſand two hundred and ſeventy-eight ſheep, nine hundred and two goats, and three hundred and thirty-one

hogs. The cultivation roſe to eighty-three ſugar plantations, two millions ſeven hundred and twenty-five thouſand ſix hundred coffee trees, one hundred and fifty thouſand three hundred cacoa trees, and eight hundred cotton plants. The proviſions conſiſted of five millions ſeven hundred forty thouſand four hundred and fifty trenches of caſſada, nine hundred and thirty-three thouſand five hundred and ninety-ſix banana trees, and one hundred and forty-three ſquares of potatoes and yams. The colony made a rapid progreſs, in proportion to the excellence of its ſoil; but in the courſe of the laſt war but one, the iſland was taken by the Britiſh. At this time, one of the mountains at the ſide of St. George's harbour was ſtrongly fortified, and might have made a good defence, but ſurrendered without firing a gun; and by the treaty concluded in 1763 the iſland was ceded to Britain. On this ceſſion, and the management of the colony after that event, the Abbé Raynal has the following remarks: "This long train of evils [the ambition and miſmanagement of his countrymen] has thrown Grenada into the hands of the Engliſh, who are in poſſeſſion of this conqueſt by the treaty of 1763. But how long will they keep this colony? Or, will it never again be reſtored to France? England made not a fortunate beginning. In the firſt enthuſiaſm raiſed by an acquiſition, of which the higheſt opinion had been previouſly formed, every one was eager to purchaſe eſtates there; they ſold for much more than their real value. This caprice, by expelling old coloniſts who were inured to the climate, ſent about one million five hundred and fifty-three thouſand pounds out of the mother country. This imprudence was followed by another. The new proprietors, miſled by national pride, ſubſtituted new methods to thoſe of their predeceſſors; they attempted to alter the mode of living among their ſlaves. The negroes, who from their very ignorance are more attached to their cuſtoms than other men, revolted. It was found neceſſary to ſend out troops, and to ſhed blood: the whole colony was filled with ſuſpicions: the maſters, who had laid themſelves under a neceſſity of uſing violent methods, were afraid of being burnt or maſſacred in their own plantations: the labours declined, or were totally interrupted. Tranquillity was at length reſtored, and the number of ſlaves increaſed as far as forty thouſand, and the produce raiſed to the treble of what it was under the French government. The plantations were farther improved by the neighbourhood of a dozen of iſlands, called the Grenadines or Grenadilloes, which are dependent on the colony.

They

They are from three to eight leagues in circumference, but do not afford a ſingle ſpring of water, one ſmall one excepted; the air is wholeſome; the ground, covered only with thin buſhes, has not been ſcreened from the ſun; it exhales none of thoſe noxious vapours which are fatal to the huſbandman. Cariacou, the only one of the Grenadines which the French occupied, was at firſt frequented by turtle fiſhermen; who, in the leiſure afforded them by ſo eaſy an occupation, employed themſelves in clearing the ground. In proceſs of time, their ſmall number was increaſed by the acceſſion of ſome of the inhabitants of Guadaloupe, who finding that their plantations were deſtroyed by a particular ſort of ants, removed to Cariacou. The iſland flouriſhed from the liberty that was enjoyed there. The inhabitants collected about one thouſand two hundred ſlaves, by whoſe labours they made themſelves a revenue of near twenty thouſand pounds a year in cotton. The other Grenadines do not afford a proſpect of the ſame advantages, though plantations are begun there. Sugar has ſucceeded remarkably well at Becouya, the largeſt and moſt fertile of theſe iſlands, which is no more than two leagues diſtant from St. Vincent."

In the year 1779, the conqueſt of this iſland was accompliſhed by D'Eſtaing, the French admiral, who had been prevented from attempting it before by his enterpriſe againſt St. Vincent. Immediately after the conqueſt of St. Lucia, however, being reinforced by a ſquadron under M. de la Motte, he ſet ſail for Grenada with a fleet of twenty-ſix ſail of the line and twelve frigates, having on board ten thouſand land forces. Here he arrived on the ſecond of July, and landed three thouſand troops, chiefly Iriſh, being part of the brigade compoſed of natives of Ireland in the ſervice of France. Theſe were conducted by Count Dillon, who diſpoſed them in ſuch a manner as to ſurround the hill that overlooks and commands George's-town, together with the fort and harbour. To oppoſe theſe, Lord M'Cartney, the governor, had only about one hundred and fifty regulars, and three hundred or four hundred armed inhabitants; but though all reſiſtance was evidently vain, he determined nevertheleſs to make an honourable and gallant defence. The preparations he made were ſuch as induced D'Eſtaign himſelf to be preſent at the attack; and even with this vaſt ſuperiority of force, the firſt attack on the entrenchments proved unſucceſsful. The ſecond continued two hours, when the garriſon was obliged to yield to the immenſe diſparity of numbers who aſſaulted them, after having killed or wounded three hundred of their antagoniſts. Having thus

made themſelves maſters of the entrenchments on the hill, the French turned the cannon of them towards the fort which lay under it, on which the governor demanded a capitulation. The terms, however, were ſo extraordinary and unprecedented, that both the governor and inhabitants agreed in rejecting them, and determined rather to ſurrender without any conditions at all than upon thoſe which appeared ſo extravagant. This they did, and it muſt be acknowledged, that the protection which was afforded to the helpleſs inhabitants of the town and their property, was ſuch as reflected the higheſt honour and luſtre on the diſcipline and humanity of the conqueror's protections and ſafeguards were granted on every application; and thus a town was ſaved from plunder which, by the ſtrict rules of war, might have been given up to an exaſperated ſoldiery.

In the mean time Admiral Byron, who had been convoying the homeward bound Weſt-India fleet, haſtened to St. Vincent, in hopes of recovering it; but being informed by the way, that a deſcent had been made at Grenada, he changed his courſe, hoping that Lord M'Cartney would be able to hold out till his arrival. On the ſixth of July he came in ſight of the French fleet, and without regarding D'Eſtaing's ſuperiority of ſix ſhips of the line and as many frigates, determined, if poſſible, to force him to a cloſe engagement. The French commander, however, was not ſo confident of his own proweſs as to run the riſk of an encounter of this kind, and having already achieved his conqueſt, had no other view than to preſerve it. His deſigns were facilitated by the good condition of his fleet, which being more lately come out of port than that of the Britiſh, ſailed faſter, ſo that he was thus enabled to keep at what diſtance he pleaſed. The engagement began at eight in the morning, when Admiral Barrington with his own and two other ſhips got up to the van of the enemy, which they attacked with the greateſt ſpirit. As the other ſhips of his diviſion, however, were not able to get up to his aſſiſtance, theſe three ſhips were neceſſarily obliged to encounter a vaſt ſuperiority, and of conſequence ſuffered exceedingly. The battle was carried on from beginning to end in the ſame unequal manner; nor were the Britiſh commanders, though they uſed their utmoſt efforts for this purpoſe, able to bring the French to a cloſe engagement. Thus Captains Collingwood, Edwards, and Cornwallis, ſtood the fire of the whole French fleet for ſome time. Captain Fanſhaw of the Monmouth, a ſixty-four gun ſhip, threw himſelf ſingly in the way of the enemy's van; and Admiral Rowley and Captain Buchart

fought

fought at the ſame diſadvantage: ſo that finding it impoſſible to continue the engagement with any probability of ſucceſs, a general ceſſation of firing took place about noon. It re-commenced in the ſame manner about two in the afternoon, and laſted with different interruptions till the evening. During this action ſome of the Britiſh ſhips had forced their way into St. George's harbour, not imagining that the enemy were already in poſſeſſion of the iſland. They were ſoon undeceived, however, by perceiving the French colours flying aſhore, and the guns and batteries firing at them. This diſcovery put an end to the deſign which had brought on the engagement; and as it was now high time to think of providing for the ſafety of the Britiſh tranſports, which were in danger from the number of the enemy's frigates, the engagement was finally diſcontinued. During this action ſome of Admiral Byron's ſhips had ſuffered extremely; the Lion of ſixty-four guns, Captain Cornwallis, was found incapable of rejoining the fleet, which were plying to windward, and was therefore obliged to bear away alone before the wind. Two other ſhips lay far aſtern in a very diſtreſſed ſituation, but no attempt was made to capture them, nor did the French admiral ſhow the leaſt inclination to renew the engagement.

Grenada was again reſtored to Great-Britain at the peace of Paris; it contains about eighty thouſand acres of land, of which although no leſs than ſeventy-two thouſand one hundred and forty-one acres paid taxes in 1776, and may therefore be ſuppoſed fit for cultivation, yet the quantity actually cultivated has never exceeded fifty thouſand acres. The face of the country is mountainous, but not inacceſſible in any part, and abounds with ſprings and rivulets. To the north and the eaſt, the ſoil is a brick mould, the ſame, or nearly the ſame, as that of which mention has been made in the hiſtory of Jamaica; on the weſt ſide, it is a rich black mould on a ſubſtratum of yellow clay; to the ſouth, the land in general is poor, and of a reddiſh hue, and the ſame extends over a conſiderable part of the interior country. On the whole, however, Grenada appears to be fertile in a high degree, and by the variety, as well as the excellence of its returns, ſeems adapted to every tropical production. The exports of the year 1776, from Grenada and its dependencies, were fourteen millions twelve thouſand one hundred and fifty-ſeven pounds of muſcavado, and nine millions two hundred and ſeventy-three thouſand ſix hundred and ſeven pounds of clayed ſugar, eight hundred and eighteen thouſand ſeven hundred gallons of rum, one million eight hundred

dred and twenty-ſeven thouſand one hundred and ſixty-ſix pounds of coffee, four hundred and fifty-ſeven thouſand ſeven hundred and nineteen pounds of cacoa, ninety-one thouſand nine hundred and forty-three pounds of cotton, twenty-ſeven thouſand ſix hundred and thirty-eight pounds of indigo, and ſome ſmaller articles; the whole of which, on a moderate computation, could not be worth leſs, at the ports of ſhipping, than ſix hundred thouſand pounds ſterling, excluding freight, duties, inſurance, and other charges. It deſerves to be remembered too, that the ſugar was the produce of one hundred and ſix plantations only, and that they were worked by eighteen thouſand two hundred and ninety-three negroes, which was therefore rather more than one hogſhead of ſixteen hundred weight from the labour of each negro, old and young, employed in the cultivation of that commodity; a prodigious return, equalled, we believe, by no Britiſh iſland in the Weſt-Indies, St. Chriſtoper's excepted. The exports of 1787 will be given hereafter; they will be found, except in one or two articles, to fall greatly ſhort of thoſe of 1776.

This iſland is divided into ſix pariſhes; St. George, St. David, St. Andrew, St. Patrick, St. Mark, and St. John; and its chief dependency, Cariacou, forms a ſeventh pariſh. It is only ſince the reſtoration of Grenada to Great-Britain by the peace of 1783, that an iſland law has been obtained for the eſtabliſhment of a Proteſtant clergy. This act paſſed in 1784, and provides ſtipends of three hundred and thirty pounds currency, and ſixty pounds for houſe rent per annum, for five *clergymen*, viz. one for the town and pariſh of St. George three for the other five out pariſhes of Grenada, and one for Cariacou. Beſides theſe ſtipends, there are valuable glebe lands, which had been appropriated to the ſupport of the Roman Catholic clergy, whilſt that was the eſtabliſhed religion of Grenada. Theſe lands, according to an opinion of the attorney and ſolicitor-general of England, to whom a queſtion on this point was referred by the crown, became veſted in his Majeſty as public lands, on the reſtoration of the iſland to the Britiſh government,* and we believe have ſince been

* If the deciſion of the attorney-general and ſolicitor-general was founded on juſtice, and the government of Great-Britain had a right to ſeize theſe lands and apply them to a different purpoſe than that which they were originally intended, and beſtowed for, the ſame principle muſt juſtify the French government in ſeizing the church lands as public property, and applying them to the benefit of their country; hence it appears that what has been termed the moſt daring ſacrilege and uſurpation when done in France, is ſanctioned in Great-Britain by legal authority as an act of juſtice.

applied by the colonial legiſlature, with the conſent of the crown, to the farther ſupport of the Proteſtant church, with ſome allowance for the benefit of the *tolerated* Romiſh clergy of the remaining French inhabitants.

The capital of Grenada, by an order of governor Melville, ſoon after the ceſſion of the country to Great-Britain by the peace of Paris, was called St. George. By this ordinance, the Engliſh names were given to the ſeveral towns and pariſhes, and their French names forbidden to be thereafter uſed in any public acts. The French name of the capital was Fort Royale; it is ſituated in a ſpacious bay, on the weſt or lee ſide of the iſland, not far from the ſouth end, and poſſeſſes one of the ſafeſt and moſt commodious harbours for ſhipping in the Engliſh Weſt-Indies, which has lately been fortified at a very great expenſe.

The other towns in Grenada are, properly ſpeaking, inconſiderable villages or hamlets, which are generally ſituated at the bays or ſhipping places in the ſeveral out pariſhes. The pariſh town of Cariacou is called Hillſborough.

Grenada has two ports of entry, with ſeparate eſtabliſhments, and diſtinct revenue officers, independent of each other, viz. one at St. George, the capital, and one at Grenville bay, a town and harbour on the eaſt or windward ſide of the iſland. The former, by the 27th Geo. III. c. 27, is made a free port.

It appears that the white population of Grenada and the Grenadines has decreaſed conſiderably ſince theſe iſlands firſt came into the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh. The number of white inhabitants, in the year 1771, were known to be ſomewhat more than ſixteen hundred; in 1777, they had decreaſed to thirteen hundred; and at this time they are ſuppoſed not to exceed one thouſand, of which about two thirds are men able to bear arms, and incorporated into five regiments of militia, including a company of free blacks or mulattoes attached to each. There are likewiſe about five hundred regular troops from Great-Britain, which are ſupported on the Britiſh eſtabliſhment. Beſides the regular troops which are ſent from Great-Britain for the protection of Grenada, there are in its garriſon three companies of king's negroes, which came from America, where they ſerved in three capacities, as pioneers, artificers, and light dragoons. In Grenada they form a company of each, and are commanded by a lieutenant of the regulars, having captain's rank.

The

The negro ſlaves have alſo decreaſed. By the laſt returns preceding the capture of the iſland in 1779, they were ſtated at thirty-five thouſand, of which five thouſand were in Cariacou, and the ſmaller iſlands. In 1785 they amounted to no more than twenty-three thouſand nine hundred and twenty-ſix in the whole. The decreaſe was owing partly to the want of any regular ſupply during the French government, and partly to the numbers carried from the iſland by the French inhabitants, both before and after the peace.

The free people of colour amounted in 1787, to one thouſand one hundred and fifteen. To prevent the too great increaſe of this mixed race, every manumiſſion is, by an act of this iſland, charged with a fine of one hundred pounds currency, payable into the public treaſury. But this law has neither operated as a productive fund, nor as a prohibition; for it is uſually evaded by executing and recording acts of manumiſſion in ſome other iſland or government where there is no ſuch law. The evidence of all free coloured people, whether born free or manumitted, is received in the courts of this iſland, on their producing ſufficient proof of their freedom; and ſuch free people are tried on criminal charges in the ſame manner as whites, without diſtinction of colour. They are alſo allowed to poſſeſs and enjoy lands and tenements to any amount, provided they are native-born ſubjects or capitulants, and not aliens.

The governor, by virtue of his office, is chancellor, ordinary, and vice-admiral, and preſides ſolely in the courts of chancery and ordinary, as in Jamaica. His ſalary is three thouſand two hundred pounds currency per annum,* which is raiſed by a poll tax on all ſlaves; and it is the practice in Grenada to paſs a ſalary bill on the arrival of every new governor, to continue during his government. In all caſes of abſence beyond twelve months, the ſalary ceaſes and determines.

The council of Grenada conſiſts of twelve members, and the aſſembly of twenty-ſix. The powers, privileges and functions of both theſe branches of the legiſlature are the ſame, and exerciſed preciſely in the ſame manner as thoſe of the council and aſſembly in Jamaica. A freehold or life eſtate, of fifty acres, is a qualification to ſit as repreſentatives for the pariſhes, and a freehold, or life eſtate in fifty pounds houſe rent in St. George, qualifies a repreſentative for the

* The currency of Grenada, or rate of exchange, is commonly ſixty-five per cent: worſe than ſterling.

town.

town. An eſtate of ten acres in fee, or for life, or a rent of ten pounds in any of the out towns, gives a vote for the repreſentatives of each pariſh reſpectively; and a rent of twenty pounds per ann. iſſuing out of any freehold or life eſtate in the town of St. George, gives a vote for the repreſentative for the town.

The law courts in Grenada, beſides thoſe of chancery and ordinary, are the court of grand ſeſſions of the peace, held twice a year, viz. in March and September. In this court the firſt perſon named in the commiſſion of the peace preſides, who is uſually the preſident or ſenior in council.—The court of common pleas: this court conſiſts of one chief and four aſſiſtant juſtices, whoſe commiſſions are during pleaſure. The chief juſtice is uſually appointed in England, a profeſſional man, and receives a ſalary of ſix hundred pounds per annum. The four aſſiſtant juſtices are uſually appointed by the governor from among the gentlemen of the iſland, and act without a ſalary.—The court of exchequer: the barons of this court are commiſſioned in like manner as in the court of common pleas; but this court is lately grown into diſuſe.—The court of admiralty for trial of all prize cauſes of capture from enemies in war, and of revenue ſeizure in peace or war. There is one judge of admiralty and one ſurrogate.—The governor and council compoſe a court of error, as in Jamaica, for trying all appeals of error from the court of common pleas.

We have already noticed that there are ſeveral ſmall iſlands ſubject to the laws enacted in Grenada; they each elect a perſon to repreſent them in the general aſſembly, which is always held in St. George's. As none of the Grenadines have a harbour fit for large veſſels, the produce of them is conveyed in ſmall veſſels to St. George's, from whence it is exported to the different places of Europe, Africa, America, &c. From the number of veſſels that arrive there yearly from different places, and from its being the ſeat of the legiſlature, it has become ſo populous, that two newſpapers are publiſhed in it. On occaſion of the late proſpect of a war with Spain, an act was paſſed here in February 1790, obliging every gentleman to give in upon oath the value of his eſtate, and the number of blacks upon it, in order that the general aſſembly might aſcertain the number of ſlaves each ſhould ſend to work upon the fortifications on Richmond hill, near St. George's.

We ſhall cloſe our account of this iſland with a view of its exports in 1787, with an account of its value in the Britiſh market.

An Account of the Number of Veſſels, their Tonnage, and Men (including their repeated Voyages) that cleared outwards from the Iſland of GRENADA, &c. to all Parts of the World, between the 5th of January, 1787, and the 5th of January, 1788, with the Species, Quantities, and Value of their Cargoes, according to the actual Price in London. By the Inſpector-General of Great-Britain.

Whither bound.	Shipping.			Sugar.	Rum.	Melaſſes.	Coffee.	Cacoa.	Cotton.	Indigo.	Value of Miſcellaneous Articles, as Hides, Dying Woods, &c.	Total Value according to the current Prices in London.
	No.	Tons.	Men.	Cwt. qrs. lb.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Cwt. qrs. lb.	Cwt. qrs. lb.	lbs.	lbs.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
To Great-Britain -	65	13,276	969	172,880 0 9	102,590	—	8550 2 4	2645 1 2	2,030,177	1560	64439 0 3	555,222 11 6
Ireland - -	7	771	59	1248 0 0	86100	—	—	19 2 16	32250	1250	24 10 0	13,580 4 5
American States -	47	6373	410	290 0 0	272,080	—	44 4 0	36 0 0	—	—	27 4 0	24,597 4 0
Britiſh Amer. Cols.	30	2610	194	1130 0 0	209,620	4300	218 0 0	16 0 0	—	—	15 6 0	21,469 9 4
Foreign Weſt-Indies]	39	2734	192	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	39 0 0	39 0 0
	188	25764	1824	175,548 — 9	670,390	4300	8812 2 4	2716 3 18	2,062,427	2810	64545 0 3	614,908 9 3

DOMINICA.

THIS iſland is ſituated between 61° and 62° weſt longitude, and 15° and 16° north latitude, is about twenty-nine miles long, and ſixteen broad; it was ſo named by Columbus, on account of its being diſcovered on a Sunday. Prior to the year 1759, its hiſtory is a mere blank; at the above period it was taken by Great-Britain from France, and afterwards confirmed to her at the peace in 1763.

When Great-Britain took poſſeſſion of this iſland, many Frenchmen had eſtabliſhed plantations of coffee in various parts thereof, and theſe were ſecured in their poſſeſſions by the Britiſh government, on condition of taking the oaths of allegiance, and paying a quit rent of two ſhillings per acre per ann. provided each plantation did not conſiſt of more than three hundred acres. The reſt of the cultivable lands were ſold by auction under the inſpection of commiſſioners appointed for that purpoſe: ninety-ſix thouſand three hundred and forty-four acres were thus diſpoſed of, which yielded to the Britiſh government three hundred and twelve thouſand and ninety-two pounds eleven ſhillings and one penny ſterling. Theſe purchaſes made by Britiſh ſubjects do not appear to have anſwered the expectation of the buyers, for the French inhabitants are ſtill the moſt numerous, and poſſeſs the moſt valuable coffee plantations in the iſland, the produce of which has hitherto been found its moſt important ſtaple.

At the commencement of the unjuſt and deſtructive war againſt the American colonies by Great-Britain, the iſland of Dominica was in a very flouriſhing ſtate. Roſeau, its capital, had been declared a free port by act of parliament, and was reſorted to by trading veſſels from moſt part of the foreign Weſt-Indies, as well as from America. The French and Spaniards purchaſed great numbers of negroes there for the ſupply of their ſettlements, together with large quantities of the manufactures of Great-Britain, payment for the greater part of which was made in bullion, indigo, and cotton, and completed in mules and cattle, articles of prime neceſſity to the planter. Thus the iſland,

though certainly not ſo fertile as ſome others, was rapidly advancing to importance.

The ſituation of this iſland is between the French iſland of Guadaloupe and Martinico, with ſafe and commodious roads and harbours for privateers, rendered its defence an object of the utmoſt importance to Great-Britain; but her deſpotic principles, folly, and frantic rage againſt her colonies on the continent, cauſed a total neglect of her Weſt-India poſſeſſions. Poſterity will ſcarcely believe that the regular force allotted to this iſland, the beſt adapted of all others for the defence of the Carribbean ſea, and the diſtreſſing of the French colonies, conſiſted only of ſix officers and ninety-four privates. In 1778, the Marquis de Bouille, the governor of Martinico, made a deſcent with two thouſand men; all reſiſtance being vain, the only thing the garriſon could do was to procure as favourable terms of capitulation as poſſible. Theſe were granted with ſuch readineſs as did great honour to the character of this officer, the inhabitants experiencing no kind of change except that of transferring their obedience from Britain to France, being left unmoleſted in the enjoyment of all their rights, both civil and religious. The capitulation was ſtrictly obſerved by the Marquis, no plunder or irregularity being allowed, and a pecuniary gratification being diſtributed among the ſoldiers and volunteers who accompanied him in the expedition. An hundred and ſixty-four pieces of excellent cannon, and twenty-four braſs mortars, beſides a large quantity of military ſtores, were found in the place, inſomuch that the French themſelves expreſſed their ſurpriſe at finding ſo few hands to make uſe of them. The Marquis, however, took care to ſupply this defect, by leaving a garriſon of one thouſand five hundred of the beſt men he had with him.

Though the conduct of Bouille in the above expedition was ſuch as in every partt hereof to reflect honour on him as a ſoldier and a man, yet it was far different with reſpect to the Marquis Duchilleau, whom Bouille appointed commander in chief in Dominica. During five years and three months, the period this iſland was ſubject to the French monarchy, and under his adminiſtration, it was a prey to the moſt villainous deſpotiſm and wanton exertion of power. The principles of the late court of Verſailles diſcovered themſelves in all their helliſh forms. The Engliſh inhabitants were ſtripped of their arms, and forbid to aſſemble in any greater number than two in a

place, under the penalty of military execution; and the centinels were ordered to ſhoot them if they paſſed in greater numbers. No lights were to be ſeen in their houſes after nine o'clock in the evening, nor was an Engliſh perſon to preſume to walk the ſtreets on any account whatever after that period without a lanthorn and candle. Mr. Robert How, an Engliſh merchant, and owner of a ſhip then in the harbour, attempting to go on board after that time, was ſhot dead in the attempt, and the centinel who did the act, promoted for having, as the governor expreſſed it, done his duty.

The town of Roſeau was ſet on fire by the French ſoldiery, which if not done by the governor's orders, was however ſanctioned by him, for during the whole night on which the melancholy event took place, he was preſent like another Nero, diverting himſelf with the ſcene, and actually forbid his ſoldiers to aſſiſt in extinguiſhing the flames, ſave only in houſes belonging to the French inhabitants, but he permitted, if he did not poſitively encourage, his men to plunder the Engliſh inhabitants in the midſt of their diſtreſs.

The accumulated diſtreſſes of the inhabitants ruined a number of the planters, who threw up their plantations, and abandoned them. In 1783 it was again reſtored to Great-Britain, and the inhabitants reſtored to the enjoyment of their former privileges.

This iſland is divided into ten pariſhes, the town of Roſeau, which contains only five hundred houſes, excluſive of the cottages of the negroes, is the capital; it is ſituated on a point of land on the ſouth-weſt ſide of the iſland, which forms Woodbridge's and Charlotte Ville bays. The iſland contains many high rugged mountains, ſeveral of which contain volcanoes, which frequently diſcharge burning ſulphur, and from ſome of the mountains hot ſprings of water iſſue. Between the mountains are many fertile vallies, well watered, there being at leaſt thirty fine rivers, beſides rivulets in the country.

There are not, however, at this time, more than fifty ſugar plantations in work, and one year with another they do not produce more than from two to three thouſand hogſheads per annum. There are more than two hundred coffee plantations, which ſeem to anſwer well, as in ſome years they have produced twenty-ſix thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-five hundred weight. Cacoa, indigo and ginger are alſo cultivated, but in a very ſmall degree, for the chief of thoſe in the liſt of exports are obtained from South-America, under the ſanction of the free port law.

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The number of inhabitants, according to the return of 1788, is as follows: white inhabitants of all ſorts, one thouſand two hundred and thirty-ſix; free negroes, &c. four hundred and forty-five; ſlaves, fourteen thouſand nine hundred and ſixty-ſeven; and about twenty or thirty families of Caribbees. We ſhall cloſe this account with the following table of exports, &c.

An ACCOUNT of the Number of Veſſels, their Tonnage and Men, (including their repeated Voyages) that cleared outwards from the Iſland of DOMINICA, to all Parts of the World, between the 5th of January, 1787, and the 5th of January, 1788, with the Species, Quantities and Value of their Cargoes, according to the actual Prices in London.

Whither bound.	Shipping.			Sugar.	Rum.	Melaſſes	Cacao.	Coffee.	Indigo.	Cotton.	Ginger.	Value of Miſcellaneous Articles, as Hides, dying Woods, &c.	Total Value according to the Prices current in London.
	No.	Tons.	Men.	Cwt. qrs. lb.	Gallons	Gallons	Cwt. qrs. lb.	Cwt. qrs. lb.	lb.	lb.	Cwt.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
To Great-Britain -	56	8682	966	58,665 1 21	1492	9423	1126 2 26	17,387 3 6	11,250	961,066	161	11,635 11 3	271,472 14 0
Ireland - -	9	1046	85	11,163 0 0	3600	—	8 0 4	—	—	9750	—	20 0 0	19,900 11 6
American States	16	2003	147	1066 0 0	31,600	—	45 0 0	543 0 0	—	—	—	194 0 0	7164 5 0
Brit. Amer. Cols.	14	1096	96	408 0 0	25,400	7380	15 0 0	219 0 0	—	—	—	21 13 6	4295 3 6
Foreign W. Indies	67	5299	520	—	1300	—	—	—	—	—	—	41 6 0	155 1 0
	162	18,126	1814	71,302 1 21	63,392	16,803	1194 3 2	18,149 3 6	11,250	970,816	161	11,912 10 9	302,987 15 0

St. VINCENT.

THIS iſland contains about eighty-four thouſand acres, and is on the whole well watered; it is, however, in general mountainous and rugged, but the intermediate vallies are exceeding fertile. The country held and cultivated by the Britiſh, at preſent, does not exceed twenty-three thouſand ſix hundred and five acres, all the reſt of the iſland being held by the Caribbees, or incapable of cultivation.

The Spaniards, according to Dr. Campbell, beſtowed the name of St. Vincent on this iſland, on account of its being diſcovered on a day devoted to that Saint in their calendar; but it does not appear that they ever got poſſeſſion of it on account of the number of Indians who inhabited it; but neither the natural ſtrength of the iſland, nor their numbers, could ultimately exempt them from European hoſtilities.

When the Engliſh and French, who for ſome years had been ravaging the Windward iſlands, began to give ſome conſiſtence to their ſettlements, in the year 1660 they agreed that Dominica and St. Vincent ſhould be left to the Caribs as their property. Some of theſe ſavages, who till then had been diſperſed, retired into the former, and the greater part into the latter. There theſe mild and moderate men, lovers of peace and ſilence, lived in woods, in ſcattered families, under the guidance of an old man, whom his age alone had advanced to the dignity of ruler. The dominion paſſed ſucceſſively into every family, where the oldeſt always became king, that is to ſay, the guide and father of the nation. Theſe ignorant ſavages were ſtill unacquainted with the *ſublime* art of ſubduing and governing men by force of arms; of murdering the inhabitants of a country to get poſſeſſion of their lands; of granting to the conquerors the property, and to the conquered the labours of the conquered country; and in proceſs of time, of depriving both of the rights and the fruit of their toil by arbitrary taxes,

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The population of these children of nature was suddenly augmented by a race of Africans, whose origin was never positively ascertained. It is said that a ship carrying negroes for sale, foundered on the coast of St. Vincent, and the slaves who escaped the wreck, were received as brethren by the savages. Others pretend that these negroes were deserters, who ran away from the plantations of the neighbouring colonies. A third tradition says, that this foreign race comes from the blacks whom the Caribs took from the Spaniards in the first wars between those Europeans and the Indians. If we may credit Du Tertre, the most ancient historian who has written an account of the Antilles, these terrible savages who were so inveterate against their masters, spared the captive slaves, brought them home, and restored them to liberty that they might enjoy life, that is, the common blessings of nature, which no man has a right to withhold from any of his fellow creatures.

Their kindness did not stop here; for by whatever chance these strangers were brought into the island, the proprietors of it gave them their daughters in marriage, and the race that sprang from this mixture were called black Caribs: they have preserved more of the primitive colour of their fathers, than of the lighter hue of their mothers. The red Caribs are of a low stature; the black Caribs tall and stout, and this doubly-savage race speaks with a vehemence that seems to resemble anger.

In process of time, however, some differences arose between the two nations; the people of Martinico perceiving this, resolved to take advantage of their divisions, and raise themselves on the ruins of both parties. Their pretence was, that the black Caribs gave shelter to the slaves who deserted from the French islands. Imposture is always productive of injustice. Those who were falsely accused, were afterwards attacked without reason; but the smallness of the numbers sent out against them, the jealousy of those who were appointed to command the expedition, the defection of the red Caribs, who refused to supply such dangerous allies with any of the succours they had promised them to act against their rivals, the difficulty of procuring subsistence, the impossibility of coming up with enemies who kept themselves concealed in woods and mountains; all these circumstances conspired to disconcert this rash and violent enterprise. It was obliged to be given up after the loss of many valuable lives; but the triumph the savages obtained, did not prevent them from suing for peace as supplicants. They even invited the French to come and live

with them, ſwearing ſincere friendſhip and inviolable concord. This propoſal was agreed to, and the next year, 1719, many of the inhabitants of Martinico removed to St. Vincent.

The firſt who came thither ſettled peaceably, not only with the conſent, but by the aſſiſtance of the red Caribs. This ſucceſs induced others to follow their example; but theſe, whether frem jealouſy, or ſome other motive, taught the ſavages a fatal ſecret; that people, who knew of no property but the fruits of the earth, becauſe they are the reward of labour, learnt with aſtoniſhment that they could ſell the earth itſelf, which they had always looked upon as belonging to mankind in general. This knowledge induced them to meaſure and fix boundaries, and from that inſtant peace and happineſs were baniſhed from their iſland: the partition of lands occaſioned diviſions amongſt them. The following were the cauſes of the revolution produced by the ſyſtem of uſurpation.

When the French came to St. Vincent, they brought ſlaves along with them to clear and till the ground. The black Caribs, ſhocked at the thought of reſembling men who were degraded by ſlavery, and fearing that ſome time or other their colour, which betrayed their origin, might be made a pretence for enſlaving them, took refuge in the thickeſt part of the foreſt. In this ſituation, in order to imprint an indelible mark of diſtinction upon their tribe, that might be a perpetual token of their independence, they flattened the foreheads of all their children as ſoon as they were born. The men and women whoſe heads could not bend to this ſtrange ſhape, dared no longer appear in public without this viſible ſign of freedom. The next generation appeared as a new race; the flat-headed Caribs, who were nearly of the ſame age, tall proper men, hardy and fierce, came and erected huts by the ſea ſide.

They no ſooner knew the price which the Europeans ſet upon the lands they inhabited, than they claimed a ſhare with the other iſlanders. This riſing ſpirit of covetouſneſs was at firſt appeaſed by ſome preſents of brandy and a few ſabres; but not content with theſe, they ſoon demanded fire arms, as the red Caribs had; and at laſt they were deſirous of having their ſhare in all future ſales of land, and likewiſe in the produce of paſt ſales. Provoked at being denied a part in this brotherly repartition, they formed into a ſeparate tribe, ſwore never more to aſſociate with the red Caribs, choſe a chief of their own, and declared war.

The number of the combatants might be equal, but their ſtrength was not ſo. The black Caribs had every advantage over the red, that induſtry, valour, and boldneſs, muſt ſoon acquire over a weak habit and a timorous diſpoſition. But the ſpirit of equity, which is ſeldom deficient in ſavages, made the conqueror conſent to ſhare with the vanquiſhed all the territory lying to the leeward. It was the only one which both parties were deſirous of poſſeſſing, becauſe there they were ſure of receiving preſents from the French.

The black Caribs gained nothing by the agreement which they themſelves had drawn up. The new planters who came to the iſland, always landed and ſettled near the red Caribs, where the coaſt was moſt acceſſible. This preference rouſed that enmity which was but ill extinguiſhed; the war broke out again; the red Caribs, who were always beaten, retired to windward of the iſland; many took to their canoes and went over to the continent, or to Tobago, and the few that remained lived ſeparate from the blacks.

The black Caribs, conquerors and maſters of all the leeward coaſt, required of the Europeans that they ſhould again buy the lands they had already purchaſed. A Frenchman attempted to ſhew the deed of his purchaſe of ſome land which he had bought of a red Carib; "I know not," ſays a black Carib, "what thy paper ſays, but read what is written on my arrow; there you may ſee, in characters which do not lie, that if you do not give me what I demand, I will go and burn your houſe to night." In this manner did a people who had not learnt to read, argue with thoſe who derived ſuch conſequence from knowing how to write. They made uſe of the right of force, with as much aſſurance and as little remorſe as if they had been acquainted with divine, political and civil right.

Time, which brings on a change of meaſures with a change of intereſts, put an end to theſe diſturbances. The French became in their turn the ſtrongeſt; they no longer ſpent their time in breeding poultry, and cultivating vegetables, caſſava, maize, and tobacco, in order to ſell them at Martinico. In leſs than twenty years more important cultures employed eight hundred white men and three thouſand blacks. Such was the ſituation of St. Vincent when it fell into the hands of the Engliſh, and was ſecured to them by the treaty of 1763.

It was in the weſtern part of the iſland that the French had begun the culture of cacoa and of cotton, and had made conſiderable advances in that of coffee. The conquerors formed there ſome ſugar

plantations; the impoſſibility of multiplying them upon an uneven ſoil, which is full of ravines, made them deſirous of occupying the plains towards the eaſt. The ſavages who had taken refuge there, refuſed to quit them, and recourſe was had to arms to compel them to it. The reſiſtance which they oppoſed to the thunders of European tyranny, was not, and could not poſſibly be maintained without great difficulty.

An officer was meaſuring out the ground which had juſt been taken poſſeſſion of, when the detachment that accompanied him was unexpectly attacked, and almoſt totally deſtroyed on the 25th of March, 1775. It was generally believed that the unfortunate perſons who had juſt been deprived of their poſſeſſions, were the authors of this violence, and the troops put themſelves in motion, and it was determined totally to eradicate and deſtroy them.

Fortunately it was determined in time that the Caribs were innocent, that they had taken or maſſacred ſeveral fugitive ſlaves who had been guilty of ſuch cruelties, and that they had ſworn not to ſtop till they had purged the iſland of thoſe vagabonds, whoſe enormities were often imputed to them. In order to confirm the ſavages in this reſolution, by allurement of rewards, the legiſlative body paſſed a bill to inſure a gratuity of five moides, or one hundred and twenty livres, to any one who ſhould bring the head of a negro, who ſhould have deſerted within three months.

On the 19th of June, 1779, St. Vincent's ſhared the fate of many other Britiſh poſſeſſions in the Weſt-Indies, being taken by a ſmall body of French troops from Martinico, commanded by a lieutenant in the navy. The black Caribbees, however, joined the foe, and the iſland ſurrendered without a ſtruggle. The terms of capitulation were eaſy, and it was again reſtored in 1783 to Great-Britain; at that time it contained ſixty-one ſugar eſtates, five hundred acres in coffee, two hundred in cacoa, four hundred in cotton, fifty in indigo, and five hundred in tobacco, beſides the land appropriated to the raiſing plantains, yams, maize, &c. All the reſt, except the ſmall ſpots cultivated by the native Caribbees, retained its native woods, as it does at this time.

The Britiſh territory in this iſland is divided into five pariſhes, of which only one was ever furniſhed with a church, which was blown down in 1780. Kingſton is the capital of the iſland, and the ſeat of government. There are beſides three other inconſiderable villages, called towns, but which conſiſt each only of a few houſes. The government

vernment of St. Vincent is the ſame as that of Grenada; the council conſiſts of twelve, and the aſſembly of ſeventeen. The governor has two thouſand pounds ſterling per ann. half of which is paid by the exchequer of Great-Britain, and the other half raiſed within the iſland.

The military force is a regiment of infantry, and a company of artillery, ſent from England, and a black corps raiſed in the country, but placed on the Britiſh eſtabliſhment, and provided for accordingly: there are beſides two regiments of militia, which ſerve without pay of any kind.

The number of inhabitants, according to the laſt return made to government, was one thouſand four hundred and fifty whites, and eleven thouſand eight hundred and fifty-three blacks, ſlaves.*

We ſhall cloſe this account as of the other iſlands, with a table of exports, &c. but it muſt be remarked, that in this table is comprehended the produce of ſeveral ſmall iſlands dependent on the St. Vincent government. Theſe iſlands are Bequia, Union, Canouane, Muſtique, Petit Martinique, Petit St. Vincent, Maillerau, and Balleſcau; the whole containing near ten thouſand acres, but the four laſt only produce a little cotton.

* Of theſe negroes there are on the dependent iſlands about ſixteen hundred.

An ACCOUNT of the Number of Veſſels, their Tonnage and Men, (including their repeated Voyages) that cleared Outwards from the Iſland of SAINT VINCENT, &c. to all Parts of the World, between the 5th of January, 1787, and the 5th of January, 1788; with the Species, Quantities and Value of their Cargoes, according to the actual Prices in London. By the Inſpector-General of Great-Britain.

Whither bound.	Shipping.			Cut Sugar.	Rum.	Melaſſes.	Coffee.	Cotton.	Cacao.	Miſcellaneous Articles, as Hydes, dying Woods, &c.	Total, according to the current Prices in London.
	No.	Tons.	Men.	Cwt. qrs. lb.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Cwt. qrs. lb.	lb.	Cwt. qrs. lb.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
To Great-Britain -	30	6086	463	64,449 1 27	15,766	9656	632 1- 5	760,380	99 2 24	2570 7 6	175,571 9 6
American States -	21	2587	174	579 0 0	51,300	—	2 0 0	1500	43 2 0	16 0 0	9019 1 8
Foreign Weſt-Indies	71	3963	332	—	21,200	—	—	—	—	5 3 6	1860 3 6
	122	12,636	969	65,128 1 27	88,266	9656	634 1 5	761,880	143 0 24	2591 11 0	186,450 14 8

NEVIS.

NEVIS lies about ſeven leagues north of Montſerrat, and is ſeparated from St. Chriſtopher's by a narrow channel: it makes a beautiful appearance from the ſea, being a large conical mountain covered with fine trees, of an eaſy aſcent on every ſide, and entirely cultivated. The circumference is about twenty-one miles, with a conſiderable tract of level ground all around. The climate in the lower part is reckoned to be warmer than Barbadoes, but it is more temperate towards the ſummit. The ſoil is very fine in the lower part, but grows coarſer as we aſcend. The productions are nearly the ſame with thoſe of St. Chriſtopher's, and the average quantity of ſugar is four thouſand hogſheads of ſixteen hundred weight each. The iſland is divided into five pariſhes, and it has three pretty good roads or bays, with ſmall towns in their vicinity; Charleſton, the ſeat of government, Moreton bay, and Newcaſtle. This pleaſant iſland was ſettled under the auſpices of Sir Thomas Warner from St. Chriſtopher's, in the year 1628. His ſucceſſor, Governor Lake, was conſidered as the Solon of this little country, in which he diſpoſed of every thing with ſuch prudence, wiſdom and juſtice, as procured him an high reputation with the French as well as Engliſh. In the Dutch war they met with ſome diſturbance from the French, but by being covered by an Engliſh ſquadron, the enemy were obliged to deſiſt from their intended invaſion, after a ſmart engagement in ſight of the iſland. Sir William Stapleton ſometimes reſided here, and Sir Nathaniel Johnſon conſtantly, at which time the inhabitants of Nevis were computed at thirty thouſand. In the war immediately after the revolution they exerted themſelves gallantly, and had two regiments of three hundred men each. In that of Queen Anne they behaved equally well, though they were leſs fortunate; for the French landing with a ſuperior force, and having inveigled moſt of their ſlaves, they were forced to capitulate. About four thouſand of theſe ſlaves the French carried away and ſold to the Spaniards, to work in their mines. The parliament, after making

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due inquiry into the loſſes they had ſuſtained, voted them about a third part of the ſum in which they had ſuffered. Theſe loſſes by war, an epidemic diſeaſe, and repeated hurricanes, exceedingly diminiſhed the number of the people. They now, according to Mr. Edwards, do not exceed ſixteen hundred whites and ten thouſand blacks. All the white men, not exempt by age and other infirmities, are formed into a militia for its defence, from which there is a troop of fifty horſe well mounted; but they have no troops on the Britiſh eſtabliſhment. The principal fortification is at Charleſton, and is called Charles fort, the governor of which is appointed by the crown, and paid by the inhabitants. There is here a lieutenant-governor, with a council of members, and an aſſembly compoſed of three members from each of the five pariſhes into which the iſland is divided. The adminiſtering of juſtice is under a chief juſtice and two aſſiſtant judges. The commodities are chiefly cotton and ſugar; and about twenty ſail of ſhips are annually employed in this trade.

MONT-

MONTSERRAT.

MONTSERRAT is a very ſmall but very pleaſant iſland, ſo called by Columbus from its reſemblance to the famous mountain near Barcelona in Catalonia, It lies in weſt longitude 61° 0′, north latitude 16° 15′, having Antigua to the north-eaſt, St. Chriſtopher's and Nevis to the north-weſt, and Guadaloupe lying ſouth ſouth-eaſt at the diſtance of about nine leagues. In its figure it is nearly round, about nine miles in extent every way, twenty-ſeven in circumference, and is ſuppoſed to contain about forty or fifty thouſand acres. The climate is warm, but leſs ſo than in Antigua, and is eſteemed very healthy. The ſoil is mountainous, but with pleaſant valleys, rich and fertile, between them; the hills are covered with cedars and other fine trees. Here are all the animals as well as vegetables and fruits, that are to be found in the other iſlands, and not at all inferior to them in quality. The inhabitants raiſed formerly a conſiderable quantity of indigo, which was none of the beſt, but which they cut four times a year. The preſent product is cotton, rum and ſugar. There is no good harbour, but three tolerable roads, at Plymouth, Old harbour, and Ker's bay, where they ſhip the produce of the iſland. Public affairs are adminiſtered here as in the other iſles, by a lieutenant-governor, a council of ſix, and an aſſembly, compoſed of no more than eight members, two from each of the four diſtricts into which it is divided. Its civil hiſtory contains nothing particular except its invaſion by the French in 1712, and its capture by them again in the late war, at the concluſion of which it was reſtored to Great-Britain. The wonderful effects of induſtry and experience, in meliorating the gifts of Nature, have been no where more conſpicuous than in theſe iſlands, and particularly in this, by gradually improving their produce, more eſpecially of late years, ſince the art of planting has been reduced to a regular ſyſtem, and almoſt all the defects of ſoil ſo thoroughly removed by proper management and manure, that, except from the failure of ſeaſons, or the want of hands, there is ſeldom any fear of a crop.

As far back as 1770, there were exported from this iſland to Great-Britain one hundred and ſixty-ſeven bags of cotton, ſeven hundred and forty hogſheads of rum; to Ireland one hundred and thirty-three ditto, four thouſand three hundred and thirty-eight hogſheads, two hundred and thirty-two tierces, two hundred and two barrels of ſugar; the whole valued at eighty-nine thouſand nine hundred and ſeven pounds: and exports to North-America valued at twelve thouſand ſix hundred and thirty-three pounds. There are a few ſhips employed in trading to this iſland from London and from Briſtol, and the average of its trade will be ſeen in the tables annexed. As to the number of inhabitants, according to the moſt probable accounts, they conſiſt of between twelve and fourteen hundred whites, and about ten thouſand negroes, though ſome ſay not ſo many.

BARBUDA AND ANGUILLA.

BARBUDA, which belongs entirely to the Codrington family, and the circumference of which is ſix or ſeven leagues, hath dangerous coaſts. It is, perhaps, the moſt even of all the American iſlands. The trees which cover it are weak, and not very high, becauſe there are never more than ſix or ſeven inches of earth upon a layer of lime-ſtone. Nature hath placed great plenty of turtles here; and caprice hath occaſioned the ſending thither of deer and ſeveral kinds of game; chance hath filled the woods with pintados and other fowls, eſcaped from the veſſels after ſome ſhipwreck. Upon this ſoil are fed oxen, horſes and mules, for the labours of the neighbouring ſettlements. No other culture is known there, except that of the kind of corn which is neceſſary for the feeding of the numerous herds in thoſe ſeaſons when the paſture fails. Its population is reduced to three hundred and fifty ſlaves, and to the ſmall number of free men who are appointed to overlook them. This private property pays no tribute to the nation, though it be ſubject to the tribunals of Antigua. The air here is very pure and very wholeſome. Formerly, the ſickly people of the other Engliſh iſlands went to breathe it, in order to ſtop the progreſs of their diſeaſes, or to recover their ſtrength. This cuſtom hath ceaſed, ſince ſome of them indulged themſelves in parties of deſtructive chace.

Muſt men then be ſuffered to periſh, in order that animals ſhould be preſerved? How is it poſſible, that ſo atrocious a cuſtom, which draws down the imprecation of almoſt all Europe upon the ſovereigns and upon the lords of its countries, ſhould be ſuffered, and ſhould even be eſtabliſhed beyond the ſeas? We have aſked this queſtion, and we have been anſwered, that the iſland belonged to the Codringtons, and that they had a right to diſpoſe of their property at their pleaſure. We now aſk, whether this right of property, which is undoubtedly ſacred, hath not its limits? Whether this right, in a variety of circumſtances, be not ſacrificed to public good? Whether the man who is in poſſeſſion of a fountain can refuſe

water to him who is dying with thirſt? Whether any of the Codrington family would partake of one of thoſe precious pintados, that had coſt his countryman or his fellow-creature his life? Whether the man who ſhould be convicted of having ſuffered a ſick perſon to die at his door, would be ſufficiently puniſhed by the general execration? And whether he would not deſerve to be dragged before the tribunals of juſtice as an aſſaſſin?

Anguilla is ſeven or eight leagues in length, and is very unequal in its breadth, which never exceeds two leagues. Neither mountains, nor woods, nor rivers, are found upon it, and its ſoil is nothing more than chalk.

Some wandering Engliſhmen ſettled upon this porous and friable rock towards the year 1650. After an obſtinate labour, they at length ſucceeded in obtaining from this kind of turf a little cotton, a ſmall quantity of millet ſeed, and ſome potatoes. Six veins of vegetating earth, which were in proceſs of time diſcovered, received ſugar-canes, which, in the beſt harveſt, yield no more than fifty thouſand weight of ſugar, and ſometimes only five or ſix thouſand. Whatever elſe comes out of the colony hath been introduced into it clandeſtinely from Santa Cruz, where the inhabitants of Anguilla have formed ſeveral plantations.

In ſeaſons of drought, which are but too frequent, the iſland hath no other reſource but in a lake, the ſalt of which is ſold to the people of New-England; and in the ſale of ſheep and goats, which thrive better in this dry climate, and upon theſe arid plains, than in the reſt of America.

Anguilla reckons no more than two hundred free inhabitants, and five hundred ſlaves: nevertheleſs it hath an aſſembly of its own, and even a chief, who is always choſen by the inhabitants, and confirmed by the governor of Antigua. A foreigner, who ſhould be ſent to govern this feeble ſettlement, would infallibly be driven away, by men who have preſerved ſomething of the independent manners, and of the rather ſavage character of their anceſtors.

The coaſt of this iſland affords but two harbours, and even in theſe very ſmall veſſels only can anchor: they are both defended by four pieces of cannon, which, for half a century paſt, have been entirely unfit for ſervice.

BERMUDAS, OR SOMMER's ISLANDS.

THIS cluſter of iſlands lies almoſt in the form of a ſhepherd's crook, in weſt longitude 65°, north latitude 32° 30′, between two and three hundred leagues diſtant from the neareſt place of the continent of America, or of any of the other Weſt-India iſlands. The whole number of the Bermudas iſlands is ſaid to be about four hundred, but very few of them are habitable. The principal is St. George's, which is not above ſixteen miles long, and three at moſt in breadth. It is univerſally agreed, that the nature of this and the other Bermudas iſlands has undergone a ſurpriſing alteration for the worſe, ſince they were firſt diſcovered; the air being much more inclement, and the ſoil much more barren than formerly: this is aſcribed to the cutting down thoſe fine ſpreading cedar trees for which the iſlands were famous, and which ſheltered them from the blaſts of the north wind, at the ſame time that it protected the undergrowth of the delicate plants and herbs. In ſhort, the Summer iſlands are now far from being deſirable ſpots; and their natural productions are but juſt ſufficient for the ſupport of the inhabitants, who chiefly, for that reaſon perhaps, are temperate and lively even to a proverb. At firſt tobacco was raiſed upon theſe iſlands, but being of a worſe quality than that growing on the continent, the trade is now almoſt at an end. Large quantities of ambergris were alſo originally found upon the coaſts, and afforded a valuable commerce; but that trade is alſo reduced, as likewiſe their whale trade, though the perquiſites upon the latter form part of the governor's revenue, he having ten pounds for every whale that is caught. The Bermudas iſlands, however, might ſtill produce ſome valuable commodities, were they properly cultivated. There is here found, about three or four feet below the ſurface, a white chalk ſtone which is eaſily chiſelled, and is exported for building gentlemen's houſes in the Weſt-Indies. Their palmetto leaves, if properly manufac-

tured, might turn to excellent account in making women's hats; and their oranges are ſtill valuable. Their ſoil is alſo ſaid to be excellent for the cultivation of vines, and it has been thought that ſilk and cochineal might be produced; but none of theſe things have yet been attempted. The chief reſource of the inhabitants for ſubſiſtence is in the remains of their cedar-wood, of which they fabricate ſmall ſloops, with the aſſiſtance of the New-England pine, and ſell many of them to the American colonies, where they are much admired. Their turtle-catching trade is alſo of ſervice; and they are ſtill able to rear great variety of tame-fowl, and have wild ones abounding in vaſt plenty. All the attempts to eſtabliſh a regular whale fiſhery on theſe iſlands have hitherto proved unſucceſsful; they have no cattle, and even the black hog breed, which was probably left by the Spaniards, is greatly decreaſed. The water on the iſlands, except that which falls from the clouds, is brackiſh; and at preſent the ſame diſeaſes reign there as in the Caribbee iſlands. They have ſeldom any ſnow, or even much rain; but when it does fall, it is generally with great violence, and the north or north-eaſt wind renders the air very cold. The ſtorms generally come with the new moon; and if there is a halo or circle about it, it is a ſure ſign of a tempeſt, which is generally attended with dreadful thunder and lightning. The inhabited parts of the Bermudas iſlands are divided into nine diſtricts, called tribes. 1. St. George. 2. Hamilton. 3. Ireland. 4. Devonſhire. 5. Pembroke. 6. Pagets. 7. Warwick. 8. Southampton. 9. Sandys. There are but two places on the large iſland where a ſhip can ſafely come near the ſhore, and theſe are ſo well covered with high rocks, that few will chuſe to enter in without a pilot; and they are ſo well defended by forts, that they have no occaſion to dread an enemy. St. George's town is at the bottom of the principal haven, and is defended by nine forts, on which are mounted ſeventy pieces of cannon that command the entrance. The town has a handſome church, a fine library, and a noble town-houſe, where the governor, council, &c. aſſemble. The tribes of Southampton and Devonſhire have each a pariſh church and library, and the former has a harbour of the ſame name; there are alſo ſcattered houſes and hamlets over many of the iſlands, where particular plantations require them. The inhabitants are clothed chiefly with Britiſh manufactures, and all their implements for tilling the ground and building are made in Britain.

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It is uncertain who were the firſt diſcoverers of the Bermudas iſlands. John Bermudas, a Spaniard, is commonly ſaid to have diſcovered them in 1527; but this is diſputed, and the diſcovery attributed to Henry May, an Engliſhman. As the iſlands were without the reach of the Indian navigation, the Bermudas were abſolutely uninhabited when firſt diſcovered by the Europeans. May abovementioned was ſhipwrecked upon St. George's, and with the cedar which they felled there, aſſiſted by the wreck of their own ſhip, he and his companions built another which carried them to Europe, where they publiſhed their accounts of the iſlands. When Lord Delawar was governor of Virginia, Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Summers, and Captain Newport, were appointed to be his deputy-governors; but their ſhip being ſeparated by a ſtorm from the reſt of the ſquadron, was in the year 1609 wrecked on the Bermudas, and the governors diſagreeing among themſelves, built each of them a new ſhip of the cedar they found there, in which they ſeverally ſailed to Virginia. On their arrival there, the colony was in ſuch diſtreſs, that Lord Delawar, upon the report which his deputy-governors made him of the plenty they found at the Bermudas, diſpatched Sir George Summers to bring proviſions from thence to Virginia, in the ſame ſhip which brought him from Bermudas, and which had not an ounce of iron about it except one bolt in the keel. Sir George, after a tedious voyage, at laſt reached the place of his deſtination, where, ſoon after his arrival, he died, leaving his name to the iſlands, and his orders to the crew to return with black hogs to the colony of Virginia. This part of his will, however, the ſailors did not chuſe to execute, but ſetting ſail in their cedar ſhip for England, landed ſafely at Whitchurch in Dorſetſhire.

Notwithſtanding this dereliction of the iſland, however, it was not without Engliſh inhabitants. Two ſailors, Carter and Waters, being apprehenſive of puniſhment for their crimes, had ſecreted themſelves from their fellows when Sir George was wrecked upon the iſland, and had ever ſince lived upon the natural productions of the ſoil. Upon the ſecond arrival of Sir George, they enticed one Chard to remain with them; but differing about the ſovereignty of the iſland, Chard and Waters were on the point of cutting one another's throats, when they were prevented by the prudence of Carter. Soon after, they had the good fortune to find a great piece of ambergris weighing about eighty pounds, beſides other pieces, which in thoſe days were ſufficient, if properly diſpoſed of, to have made each of them

them maſter of a large eſtate. Where they were, this ambergris was uſeleſs, and therefore they came to the deſperate reſolution of carrying themſelves and it in an open boat to Virginia or to Newfoundland, where they hoped to diſpoſe of their treaſure to advantage. In the mean time, however, the Virginia company claimed the property of the Bermudas iſlands, and accordingly ſold it to one hundred and twenty perſons of their own ſociety, who obtained a charter from King James for poſſeſſing it. This new Bermudas company, as it was called, fitted out a ſhip with ſixty planters on board to ſettle on the Bermudas, under the command of one Mr. Richard Moor, by profeſſion a carpenter. The new colony arrived upon the iſland juſt at the time the three ſailors were about to depart with their ambergris; which Moor having diſcovered, he immediately ſeized and diſpoſed of it for the benefit of the company. So valuable a booty gave vaſt ſpirit to the new company; and the adventurers ſettled themſelves upon St. George's iſland, where they raiſed cabins. As to Mr. Moor, he was indefatigable in his duty, and carried on the fortifying and planting the iſland with incredible diligence; for we are told, that he not only built eight or nine forts, or rather blockhouſes, but inured the ſettlers to martial diſcipline. Before the firſt year of his government was expired, Mr. Moor received a ſupply of proviſions and planters from England, and he planned out the town of St. George as it now ſtands. The fame of this ſettlement ſoon awakened the jealouſy of the Spaniards, who appeared off St. George's with ſome veſſels; but being fired upon by the forts, they ſheered off, though the Engliſh at that time were ſo ill provided for a defence, that they had ſcarce a ſingle barrel of gunpowder on the iſland. During Moor's government, the Bermudas were plagued with rats, which had been imported into them by the Engliſh ſhips. This vermin multiplied ſo faſt in St. George's iſland, that they even covered the ground, and had neſts in the trees. They deſtroyed all the fruits and corn within doors; nay, they increaſed to ſuch a degree, that St. George's iſland was at laſt unable to maintain them, and they ſwam over to the neighbouring iſlands, where they made as great havoc. This calamity laſted five years, though probably not in the ſame degree, and at laſt it ceaſed all of a ſudden.

On the expiration of Moor's government, he was ſucceeded by Captain Daniel Tucker, who improved all his predeceſſor's ſchemes for the benefit of the iſland, and particularly encouraged the culture

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of tobacco. Being a ſevere diſciplinarian, he held all under him ſo rigidly to duty, that five of his ſubjects planned as bold an enterpriſe for liberty as was perhaps ever put in execution. Their names were Barker, who is ſaid to have been a gentleman; another Barker, a joiner; Goodwin, a ſhip-carpenter; Paet, a ſailor; and Saunders, who planned the enterpriſe. Their management was as artful as their deſign was bold. Underſtanding that the governor was deterred from taking the pleaſure of fiſhing in an open boat, on account of the dangers attending it, they propoſed to build him one of a particular conſtruction, which accordingly they did in a ſecret part of the iſland; but when the governor came to view his boat, he underſtood that the builders had put to ſea in it. The intelligence was true; for the adventurers having provided themſelves with the few neceſſaries they wanted, ſailed for England; and notwithſtanding the ſtorms they encountered, their being plundered by a French privater, and the incredible miſeries they underwent, they landed in forty-two days time at Corke in Ireland, where they were generouſly relieved and entertained by the Earl of Thomond.

In 1619, Captain Tucker reſigned his government to Captain Butler. By this time the high character which the Summer iſlands bore in England, rendered it faſhionable for men of the higheſt rank to encourage their ſettlement; and ſeveral of the firſt nobility of England had purchaſed plantations among them. Captain Butler brought over with him five hundred paſſengers, who became planters on the iſlands, and raiſed a monument to the memory of Sir George Summers. The iſland was now ſo populous, for it contained about a thouſand whites, that Captain Butler applied himſelf to give it a new conſtitution of government, by introducing an aſſembly, the government till this time being adminiſtered only in the name of the governor and council. A body of laws was likewiſe drawn up, as agreeable to the laws of England as the ſituation of the iſland would admit of. One Mr. Barnard ſucceeded Captain Butler as governor, but died in ſix weeks after his arrival on the iſland; upon which the council made choice of Mr. Harriſon to be governor till a new one ſhould be appointed. No fewer than three thouſand Engliſh were now ſettled in the Bermudas, and ſeveral perſons of diſtinction had curioſity enough to viſit it from England. Among theſe was Mr. Waller the poet, a man of fortune, who being embroiled with the parliament and commonwealth of England, ſpent ſome months in the Summer iſlands, which he has celebrated in one of his poems as the

moſt delightful place in the world. The dangers attending the navigation, and the untowardly ſituation of theſe iſlands, through their diſtance from the American continent, ſeem to be the reaſon why the Bermudas did not now become the beſt peopled iſlands belonging to England; as we are told that at one period they were inhabited by no fewer than ten thouſand whites. The inhabitants, however, never ſhowed any great ſpirit for commerce, and thus they never could become rich. This, together with the gradual alteration of the ſoil and climate, already taken notice of, ſoon cauſed them to dwindle in their population; and it is computed that they do not now contain above half the number of inhabitants they once did, and even theſe ſeem much more inclined to remove to ſome other place than to ſtay where they are; ſo that unleſs ſome beneficial branch of commerce be found out, or ſome uſeful manufacture eſtabliſhed, the ſtate of the Bermudas muſt daily grow worſe and worſe.

The following account we have extracted from Mr. Morſe, as he profeſſes to have given it on the authority of a gentleman who reſided many years on the ſpot:

"The pariſh of St. George's is an iſland to the eaſtward of the main land, on which ſtands the town of St. George's, containing about five hundred houſes. Contiguous to this is the iſland of St. David's, which ſupplies the town with butter, milk, vegetables, poultry, and freſh meat. In the boſom of the crook lie a vaſt number of ſmall iſlands, uninhabited. The iſland is rocky, and the ground hilly. In the main road a ſulky may paſs; and even there, in many places, with difficulty; but turn to the right or left, and it is paſſable only on horſeback. The air is healthy; a continual ſpring prevails: cedars, mantled in green, always adorn the hills: the paſture ground is ever verdant; the gardens ever in bloom. Moſt of the productions of the Weſt-Indies might be here cultivated. The houſes are built of a ſoft ſtone, which is ſawn like timber; when expoſed to the weather, and waſhed with lime, it becomes hard. The houſes are white as ſnow, which, beheld from an eminence, contraſted with the greenneſs of the cedars and paſture ground, and the multitude of iſlands, full in view, realize what the poets have feigned concerning the Elyſian fields. The inhabitants are numerous; the whole iſland is a continued village; no leſs, perhaps, than fifteen or twenty thouſand are collected on this ſmall ſpot, of whom the blacks conſtitute two thirds. Happy for the country, were the colour unknown among them! The Bermudians are chiefly ſeafaring people; few of

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the men are ever at home; three or four hundred go annually to Turk's iſland to rake ſalt, which is carried to America for proviſions, or ſold to ſuch as may call at Turk's iſland, for caſh. However induſtrious the men are abroad, at home they are indolent; much given, particularly of late, to gambling and luxury. The women are generally handſome and comely; they love their huſbands, their children, and their dreſs. Dancing is their favourite amuſement. The men muſt be equipped in taſte when they appear in company, ſhould they not have a dollar in the pound to pay their creditors; the women muſt array themſelves like the belles of Paris, ſhould they not have a morſel of bread to preſerve their blooming complexion. They are thoroughly acquainted with one another's families, and from their tea table, as from their atmoſphere, ariſes conſtant guſts of ſcandal and detraction. To ſtrangers they are kind, but among themſelves are quarrelſome: their friendly intercourſe is too much confined within a narrow circle, bounded by couſins or ſecond couſins.

"The common food of the Bermudians is coffee, fiſh of different kinds, a ſweet potatoe, Indian corn, and American flour. Their water is rain preſerved in ciſterns; the general drink is grog. Fiſhing is the favourite amuſement of the men. The government is conducted under a governor named by the crown of England, a council, and general aſſembly. The eſtabliſhed religion is Epiſcopacy. There are nine churches; three clergymen have the charge of theſe nine: there is one Preſbyterian church. A regard for religion is not the characteriſtic of the Bermudians; they ſeldom go to church, except it be to attend a funeral, or to get their children baptized, or to hear a ſtranger."

We ſhall cloſe this account of the Bermudas with the following extract from the report of the privy council on the ſlave trade:

"Nothing can better ſhew the ſtate of ſlavery in Bermudas than the behaviour of the blacks in the late war. There were at one time between fifteen and twenty privateers fitted out from hence, which were partly manned by negro ſlaves, who behaved both as ſailors and marines irreproachably; and whenever they were captured, always returned, if it was in their power. There were ſeveral inſtances wherein they had been condemned with the veſſel and ſold, and afterwards found means to eſcape; and through many difficulties and hardſhips returned to their maſters ſervice. In the ſhip Regulator,

a privateer, there were ſeventy ſlaves. She was taken and carried into Boſton; ſixty of them returned in a flag of truce directly to Bermudas; nine others returned by the way of New-York; one only was miſſing, who died in the cruize, or in captivity."

LUCAY's, OR BAHAMA ISLANDS.

The Bahamas are ſituated between 22° and 27° degrees north latitude, and 73° and 81′ degrees weſt longitude. They extend along the coaſt of Florida quite down to Cuba, and are ſaid to be five hundred in number, ſome of them only rocks, but twelve of them are large and fertile; all are, however, uninhabited, except Providence, which is two hundred miles eaſt of the Floridas; though ſome others are larger and more fertile, and on which the Engliſh have plantations.

Theſe iſlands were the firſt fruits of Columbus's diſcoveries; but they were not known to the Engliſh till 1667. The iſle of Providence became an harbour for the buccaneers, or pirates, who for a long time infeſted the American navigation. This obliged the government, in 1718, to ſend out Captain Woodes Rogers with a fleet to diſlodge the pirates, and for making a ſettlement. This the captain effected; a fort was erected, and an independent company was ſtationed in the iſland. Ever ſince this laſt ſettlement, theſe iſlands have been improving, though they advance but ſlowly. In time of war the inhabitants, as well as others, gain by the prizes condemned there, and at all times by the wrecks which are frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and ſhelves. The Spaniards and Americans captured theſe iſlands during the laſt war, but they were retaken on the 7th of April, 1783.

BESIDES the above enumerated, Great-Britain poſſeſſes part of a cluſter of iſlands called the Virgin iſlands, of which there is but little authentic intelligence extant. Mr. Edwards obſerves reſpecting them, that if his inquiries were not neglected, his expectations were not anſwered. They were diſcovered and named by Columbus, but

the Spaniards of thoſe days deemed them unworthy of their attentention. They are about forty in number, whereof the Engliſh hold Tortola, Virgin Gorda, or Peniſton, Joſvan Dykes, Guana iſle, Beef and Thatch iſlands, Anegada, Nechar, Prickly Pear, Camana's, Ginger, Cooper's, Salt, and Peter's iſland, with ſome other of no value. Tortola is the principal, it was originally peopled by Dutch buccaneers, who were afterwards driven from thence by a party of Engliſhmen of the ſame deſcription. The chief merit of its improvement reſts with a party of Engliſh ſettlers from Anguilla, who about the year 1690, embarked from thence and took up their reſidence in theſe iſlands; here they formed themſelves into a ſociety, their wants were few and their government ſimple and unexpenſive; a council choſen from among themſelves, with a preſident, exerciſed both a legiſlative and judicial authority, determining all queſtions and appeals, without expenſe to either party. Taxes there were none, when money was wanting it was raiſed by voluntary contribution. Lured by the proſpects of European intercourſe, they, however, purchaſed in 1773, the *privilege* of being the SUBJECTS *of the king of Great-Britain*, at the price of four and a half per cent. on all their produce, and four hundred pounds currency per annum toward the ſalary of the governor-general of the Leeward iſlands. Thus does man, unacquainted with his native rights and privileges, under the power of prejudice, purchaſe of his fellow creature the right to enjoy what God and Nature had made his own. Poſterity, however, better acquainted with the rights of man, will perhaps not only diſpute the validity of acts of this kind, but cancel contracts which their forefathers had no right to make.

The number of inhabitants on theſe iſlands at the period above referred to, was about fifteen hundred whites, and ſeven thouſand blacks. It is ſuppoſed the white inhabitants do not exceed one thouſand, while the blacks are at leaſt ten thouſand. In 1787, there was exported from theſe iſlands, in forty ſhips of ſix thouſand five hundred and ſixteen tons, ſeventy-nine thouſand two hundred and three, hundred weight of ſugar; twenty-one thouſand four hundred and ſeventeen gallons of rum; two thouſand and eleven gallons of molaſſes; two hundred and eighty-nine thouſand and ſeventy-four pounds of cotton; dying goods to the value of ſix thouſand ſix hundred and fifty-one pounds two ſhillings and ſix-pence, and other miſcellaneous articles to the value of two thouſand three hundred and forty

forty pounds eighteen ſhillings and five-pence. But theſe, like moſt of the other iſlands, are on the decline.

With the following tables, which we conceive will afford a comprehenſive view of the Weſt-India trade, we ſhall cloſe our account of the Britiſh iſlands.

Number III.

An ACCOUNT of the TOTAL QUANTITY of SUGAR imported from the Britiſh Weſt-India Iſlands into Great Britain, in the undermentioned Years; alſo an ACCOUNT, for the ſame Periods, of the QUANTITY of RAW and REFINED SUGARS exported from Great Brin, diſtinguiſhing the Quantity exported to Ireland, and other Parts of the Empire, from the Quantity exported to foreign Parts.

	Quantity of Britiſh Plantation Sugar imported.	Raw Sugar exported to Ireland and other Parts of the Empire.	Refined Sugar exported to Ireland and other Parts of the Empire.	Raw Sugar exported to foreign Parts.	Refined Sugar exported to foreign Parts.
	cwt. grs. lb.	*cwt. grs. lb.*	*cwt. grs.*	*cwt. grs. lb.*	*cwt. grs. lb.*
1772 . .	1,786,045 0 1	172,269 2 5	27,623 3	1,391 2 26	3,677 0 0
1773 . .	1,762,387 3 15	184,252 2 17	23,771 3	2,397 1 2	5,772 0 9
1774 . .	2,015,911 1 15	211,304 1 25	28,139 3	11,950 0 2	5,949 0 17
1775 . .	2,002,224 3 8	255,686 2 16	23,034 3	89,325 3 12	46,755 3 22
Total . . .	7,566,569 0 11	823,513 1 7	102,570 3	105,064 3 14	62,154 0 20
Average . .	1,891,642 1 3	205,878 1 8	25,642 2	26,266 0 24	15,538 2 5

The following ſhews the ANNUAL CONSUMPTION of Great-ritain, on an Average of the four Years above mentioned, viz.

	cwt.	*qrs. lb.*
Imported—RAW SUGAR on an Average as above	1,891,42	1 3
Exported—RAW and REFINED, the latter reduced to Raw . .	286,72	2 24
Total of home conſumption	1,605,09	2 7, being equal to 114,648 hhds. of 14 cwt.

	Quantity of Britiſh Plantation Sugar imported.	Raw Sugar exported to Ireland and other Parts of the Empire.	Refined Sugar exported to Ireland and other Parts of the Empire.	Raw Sugar exported to foreign Parts.	Refined Sugar exported to foreign Parts.
	cwt. grs. lb.	*cwt. grs. lb.*	*cwt. grs. lb.*	*cwt. grs. lb.*	*cwt. grs. lb.*
1787 . .	1,926,121 0 3	196,636 3 20	24,261 2 0	2,779 1 16	52,473 3 19
1788 . .	2,065,700 0 12	138,681 3 19	17,150 3 9	6,575 0 20	58,250 2 6
1789 . .	1,935,223 2 21	149,351 2 0	20,506 1 17	4,461 3 15	118,033 1 22
1790 . .	1,882,005 0 17	127,104 1 3	13,968 1 17	15,011 2 15	105,892 2 1
Total . . .	7,809,049 3 25	611,774 2 14	75,887 0 15	28,828 0 10	334,650 1 20
Average . .	1,952,262 1 27	152,243 2 17	18,971 3 4	7,207 0 2	83,662 2 12

The following ſhews the ANNUAL CONSUMPTION of Great-Britain, on an Average of the four Years above mentioned, viz.

	cwt.	*qrs. lb.*
Imported—RAW SUGAR on an average as above	1,952,262	1 27
Exported—RAW and REFINED, the latter reduced to Raw .	296,996	1 11
Total of home conſumption	1,655,266	0 16, being equal to 118,233 hhds. of 14 cwt.

DUTIES.

	£.	*s. d.*
GROSS DUTIES received in 1787	1,188,183	1 10
Deduct Drawbacks 122,973 7 11		
Bounties 93,301 14 3		
	216,275	2 2
Net Produce	971,827	19 8

	£.	*s. d.*
GROSS DUTIES received in 1788	1,273,920	15 0
Deduct Drawbacks 89,461 19 10		
Bounties 113,499 18 11		
	202,961	18 9
Net Produce	1,070,958	16 3

	£.	*s. d.*
GROSS DUTIES received in 1789	1,194,915	2 7
Deduct Drawbacks 99,808 19 10¼		
Bounties 183,758 17 3		
	283,567	17 1¼
Net Produce	911,347	5 5¾

Number IV.

An ACCOUNT of the QUANTITY and VALUE of all GOODS exported from Ireland to the Weft-Indies, for the Years 1790, 1791, and 1792.

Denominations.	Year ending Lady Day, 1790. Antigua.	Barbadoes.	Jamaica.	Montserrat.	Nevis.	Saint Kitt's.	Tortola.	Weft-Indies in general.	Quantity.	Rate of Value.
Ale - - *Barrels.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Aquavitæ - - *Gallons.*	—	—	120	—	—	—	—	—	120	120 0 0
Bac. Hams - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	144 3 21	—	350 1 0	—	—	—	—	0 0 14	495 1 7	940 11 10
Bac. Flitches - *Flitches.*	52	—	102	—	—	—	—	20	172	129 0 0
Beef - - *Barrels.*	3213	2806½	15012	24	391½	2985	231½	112033¾	359857	62924 15 0
Beer - - *Barrels.*	12 ½	—	446	—	—	—	—	150	722	361 0 0
Bread - - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	92 0 14	64 0 0	500 0 14	—	12 0 0	46 0 0	—	379 2 0	1093 3 0	656 5 0
Bullion - - *Ounces.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Butter - - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	1328 1 7	2898 1 21	9811 1 14	11 0 0	311 0 0	3742 2 7	419 1 21	4374 3 21	22897 0 7	48656 0 0
Candles - - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	226 2 0	363 0 21	590 1 0	1 2 0	98 0 0	204 0 0	85 0 0	504 2 0	2072 3 21	3869 12 0
Cards, Playing *Doz. Packs.*	—	—	150	—	—	—	—	—	150	45 0 0
Cheefe - - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	13 3 14	1 0 0	69 2 7	—	—	—	—	42 1 7	126 3 0	189 15 0
Cordage - - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	42 0 0	—	60 0 0	—	—	—	—	60 0 0	160 0 0	224 0 0
Cyder - - *Tuns, hhds. galls.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Corn. Barley - *Barrels.*	—	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	6	7 4 0
Corn. Beans - *Barrels.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	98	98	61 5 0
Corn. Oats - *Barrels.*	1065	232	192	—	573	480	—	1279½	3821	1432 17 0
Corn. Peafe - *Barrels.*	—	19	10¼	—	—	—	—	1	32	19 4 0
Corn. Wheat - *Barrels.*	1¼	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Drap. New - - *Yards.*	300	120	15320	—	—	—	—	346	16086	2010 15 0
Drap. Old - - *Yards.*	750	720	143	—	—	—	—	—	1613	537 13 4
Feathers - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	—	3 3 0	—	—	—	—	—	—	3 3 0	8 8 9
Fish. Herrings - *Barrels.*	84	133½	5801	30	—	474	—	648	7170	7170 0 0
Fish. Ling - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	5 2 0	3 3 0	18 2 0	—	0 1 15	15 3 0	—	8 3 20	52 3 7	158 5 0
Fish. Salmon - *Tuns, tes.*	18 3 0	4 1	6 4½	—	5 0	1 2	—	6 4	41 6	492 0 0
Flannel - - *Yards.*	—	—	80	—	—	—	—	—	80	4 0 0
Fuftians - - *Yards.*	—	—	296	—	—	—	—	—	296	14 16 0
Glafs. Cafes - - *No.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Glafs. Drinking - *Numb.*	7902	—	4824	—	—	—	—	—	12726	127 0 0
Glafs. Ware - - *Value.*	216 19 0	9 16 0	248 3 0	—	—	—	—	—	474 18 0	474 18 0
Gloves - - *Pairs.*	—	—	156	—	—	—	—	36	192	28 16 0
Groceries, fmall parcels *Val.*	3 0 0	—	8 10 0	—	—	—	—	—	11 10 0	11 10 0
Hatt. Thread - *Pounds.*	—	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	2 2 0
Hatt. Small parcels - *Value.*	—	1 16 0	22 13 0	—	—	—	—	0 8 4	24 17 4	27 17 4
Hides - Cows - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hides - Horfe - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hair Powder - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	13 0 7	6 0 0	17 0 0	—	1 0 0	—	—	1 1 7	38 1 14	57 11 3
Hardware - - *Value.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hats - - *Numb.*	450	500	144	—	—	2	—	—	1096	274 0 0
Hogs. Lard - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	8 2 0	—	—	—	—	0 0 14	—	—	8 2 14	12 18 9
Carried forward									£.	131042 0 9

Denominations.	Year ending Lady Day, 1791. Antigua.	Barbadoes.	Jamaica.	Montserrat.	Nevis.	Saint Kitt's.	Tortola.	Weft-Indies in general.	Quantity.	Rate of Value.
Ale - - *Barrels.*	—	60	152	—	—	—	—	—	212	212 0 0
Aquavitæ - - *Gallons.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Bac. Hams - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	57 0 0	67 2 0	91 1 21	—	—	—	—	50 0 0	265 3 21	505 8 0
Bac. Flitches - *Flitches.*	—	—	210	—	—	—	—	354	564	423 0 0
Beef - - *Barrels.*	2056 2-3	3188	11093 2-3	—	111¾	2281 1-3	644 2-3	10225⅔	30481	53341 15 0
Beer - - *Barrels.*	64	—	540	—	—	—	—	288	892	446 0 0
Bread - - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	74 3 0	113 0 0	958 2 21	—	28 0 0	—	—	479 1 0	1655 2 21	993 8 0
Bullion - - *Ounces.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	150	150	45 0 0
Butter - - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	1266 0 7	3655 2 24	8812 1 7	—	—	—	—	7296 0 14	27000 0 21	57375 0 0
Candles - - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	339 0 14	456 2 0	1146 2 0	11 0 0	100 0 0	291 0 0	320 0 0	570 1 7	3234 1 21	6037 0 0
Cards, Playing *Doz. Packs.*	—	—	128 4	—	—	—	—	—	128 4	38 18 0
Cheefe - - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	11 3 0	1 2 0	70 3 14	—	—	—	—	20 0 21	104 1 7	156 0 0
Cordage - - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	21 0 0	75 1 14	280 0 0	—	—	—	—	170 0 0	546 1 14	764 18 0
Cyder - - *Tuns, hhds. galls.*	—	—	2 31½	—	—	—	—	—	2 31½	3 0 0
Corn. Barley - *Barrels.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Corn. Beans - *Barrels.*	100	—	—	—	—	—	—	871	971	606 17 0
Corn. Oats - *Barrels.*	1253	556	715½	—	351	242	601½	3719	1394 12 6
Corn. Peafe - *Barrels.*	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	1	3	1 16 0
Corn. Wheat - *Barrels.*	—	—	—	—	131	—	—	240	371	500 17 0
Drap. New - - *Yards.*	—	52	724	—	—	—	—	35122	35838	4487 5 0
Drap. Old - - *Yards.*	150	—	452	—	—	—	—	—	602	200 13 4
Feathers - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	—	6 3 0	—	—	—	—	—	—	6 3 0	15 3 9
Fish. Herrings - *Barrels.*	133	—	440	—	—	—	—	318	1258	1258 0 0
Fish. Ling - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	4 0 25	2 3 20	7 1	—	0 2 20	5 1 18	0 2 20	11 1 14	41 1 5	123 0 0
Fish. Salmon - *Tuns, tes.*	17 2	2 0	4½	5	20 3	57 6	684 0 0	9 4½	1 5	11 2
Flannel - - *Yards.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Fuftians - - *Yards.*	—	140	16 0 0	—	—	—	—	—	140	7 0 0
Glafs. Cafes - - *No.*	—	—	10½	—	—	—	—	—	1-½	15 0 0
Glafs. Drinking - *Numb.*	3600	1200	2592	—	—	—	—	—	7392	75 0 0
Glafs. Ware - - *Value.*	90 0 0	36 10 0	527 9 6	—	5 0 0	—	—	0 10 0	659 9 6	659 9 6
Gloves - - *Pairs.*	—	324	2592	—	—	—	—	—	2916	437 8 0
Groceries, fmall parcels *Val.*	19 10 0	—	11 8 0	—	—	—	—	11 17 0	42 15 0	42 15 0
Hatt. Thread - *Pounds.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	12	12	3 17 0
Hatt. Small parcels - *Value.*	—	2 0 0	7 5 6	—	—	—	—	2 6 0	11 17 6	11 17 6
Hides - Cows - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	—	1 0 7	73 0 0	—	—	—	—	—	73 0 0	94 16 0
Hides - Horfe - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	—	1 0 7	—	—	—	—	—	—	1 0 7	6 0 0
Hair Powder - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	19 0 0	26 2 0	131 3 21	—	3 0 0	—	—	28 0 0	197 1 21	299 3 1
Hardware - - *Value.*	—	—	1 0 0	—	—	—	—	—	1 0 0	1 0 0
Hats - - *Numb.*	—	36	519	—	4 0 0	—	—	—	559	244 15 6
Hogs. Lard - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	3 1 21	30 0 0	54 0 7	—	—	—	—	24	979	979
									£.	131641 4 11

Denominations.	Year ending Lady Day, 1792. Antigua.	Barbadoes.	Jamaica.	Montserrat.	Nevis.	Saint Kitt's.	Tortola.	Weft-Indies in general.	Quantity.	Rate of Value.
Ale - - *Barrels.*	—	—	197¾	—	—	—	—	—	131¾	329
Aquavitæ - - *Gallons.*	—	290	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	290
Bac. Hams - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	15 0 0	20 0 0	171 1 0	—	—	—	—	—	42 0 15	248 1 15
Bac. Flitches - *Flitches.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	40	40
Beef - - *Barrels.*	2025	3494	17995	—	—	—	1371	1984	12161	39030
Beer - - *Barrels.*	44	—	523	—	—	—	—	—	316	883
Bread - - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	77 3 0	40 0 0	604 2 12	—	—	—	—	30 0 0	730 1 6	1530 2 18
Bullion - - *Ounces.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Butter - - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	1437 3 11	3057 3 3	11996 3 23	—	—	—	—	6220 2 0	7479 1 4	30480 3 7
Candles - - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	398 2 10	549 0 0	1752 0 6	—	—	—	—	329 0 0	216 3 4	1500 0 0
Cards, Playing *Doz. Packs.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4745 1 20
Cheefe - - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	6 0 0	—	100 3 0	—	—	—	—	5 0 0	—	44 3 25
Cordage - - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	20 0 0	—	170 0 0	—	—	—	—	—	—	156 2 25
Cyder - - *Tuns, hhds. galls.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	392 1 4
Corn. Barley - *Barrels.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	234 15 0
Corn. Beans - *Barrels.*	—	—	4½	—	—	—	—	—	2½	582 1 4
Corn. Oats - *Barrels.*	315	500	391	—	—	—	—	669	—	7
Corn. Peafe - *Barrels.*	—	—	55	—	—	—	—	—	1½	4 4 0
Corn. Wheat - *Barrels.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	56
Drap. New - - *Yards.*	567	—	364	—	—	—	—	—	1100	2031
Drap. Old - - *Yards.*	2198	—	642	—	—	—	—	—	161	3001
Feathers - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	—	—	7 0 0	—	—	—	—	—	—	7
Fish. Herrings - *Barrels.*	40	75	2640	—	—	—	—	9	1324	4068
Fish. Ling - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	2 2 18	1 2 17	35 3 12	—	—	—	—	5 1 21	25 3 25	71 2 9
Fish. Salmon - *Tuns, tes.*	9 4½	1 5	11 2	—	—	—	—	1 5	4 2¼	28 3
Flannel - - *Yards.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1510
Fuftians - - *Yards.*	1210	—	300	—	—	—	—	—	—	75 10 0
Glafs. Cafes - - *No.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Glafs. Drinking - *Numb.*	—	2072	8879	—	—	—	—	—	4356	15307
Glafs. Ware - - *Value.*	10 0 0	71 7 0	577 10 8	—	—	—	—	12 0 0	32 10 0	703 7 8
Gloves - - *Pairs.*	1404	—	1200	—	—	—	—	—	—	2664
Groceries, fmall parcels *Val.*	1 2 7	1 16 0	55 11 0	—	—	—	—	2 2 0	20 9 0	81 0 7
Hatt. Thread - *Pounds.*	—	—	50	—	—	—	—	—	—	13 15 0
Hatt. Small parcels - *Value.*	2 0 0	—	38 0 0	—	—	—	—	—	—	40 0 0
Hides - Cows - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hides - Horfe - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hair Powder - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	12 0 0	14 0 0	344 0 0	—	—	—	—	—	153 2 18	523 2 18
Hardware - - *Value.*	11 0 0	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	11 0 0
Hats - - *Numb.*	—	434	634	—	—	—	—	—	—	1068
Hogs. Lard - *Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	21 0 0	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	27 1 14	48 1 14
										72 11 3
									£.	155354 9 1

An ACCOUNT of the Number of Veſſels, &c. that have cleared outwards from the Iſlands of St. CHRISTOPHER's and ANTIGUA, between the 5th of January, 1787, and the 5th of January, 1788; together with an Account of their Cargoes, and the Value thereof.

SAINT CHRISTOPHER's.

Whither bound.	Shipping.			Sugar.	Rum.	Molaſſes.	Indigo.	Cotton.	Dying Woods, in Value.	Miſcellaneous Articles, in Value.	Total.
	No.	Tons.	Men.	Cwt. qrs. lb.	Gallons.	Gallons	lb.	lb.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
To Great-Britain - - -	53	11,092	764	231,397 2 12	78,299	8154	318	484,640	5824 1 6	33,195 16 10	480,178 15 5
Ireland - - -	3	350	30	3,099 0 0	8,500	—	—	—	—	20 11 0	6,035 6 0
American States - -	21	2,457	140	386 0 0	167,740	—	—	—	—	186 10 0	15,512 15 0
British Colonies in America	19	1,201	121	646 0 0	63,000	—	—	—	—	19 0 0	6,788 10 0
Foreign Weſt-Indies -	104	7,155	536	—	15,070	—	—	—	165 0 0	15 1 6	1,498 14 0
Total from St. Chriſtopher's	200	23,155	1590	235,528 2 12	334,609	8154	318	484,640	5989 1 6	33,436 19 4	510,014 0 5

ANTIGUA.

To Great-Britain - - -	65	13,806	901	254,575 1 11	128,936	3510	26	131,010	1742 6 6	46,466 18 3	484,483 19 6
Ireland - - -	16	1,909	159	22,195 0 0	97,400	—	—	29,500	2400 0 0	43 0 0	50,768 16 8
American States - -	71	8,281	552	6,579 0 0	305,150	1700	—	—	—	407 5 0	44,679 19 2
British Colonies in America	34	2,127	177	44 0 0	109,320	700	—	—	—	14 7 0	11,031 15 4
Foreign Weſt-Indies -	47	2,540	259	33 0 0	5,140	—	—	—	—	1,075 0 0	1,632 5 0
Total from Antigua - -	233	28,663	2048	284,526 1 18	746,546	5910	26	160,510	4142 6 6	48,006 10 3	592,596 15 8

An ACCOUNT of the Number of Veſſels, &c. that have cleared outwards from the Iſlands of MONTSERRAT, NEVIS, and the VIRGIN ISLANDS, between the 5th of January, 1787, and the 5th of January, 1788; together with an Account of their Cargoes, and the Value thereof.

MONTSERRAT AND NEVIS.

Whither bound.	Shipping.			Sugar.	Rum.	Molaſſes.	Indigo.	Cotton.	Dying Woods, in Value.	Miſcellaneous Articles, in in Value.	Total.
	No.	Tons.	Men.	Cwt. qrs. lb.	Gallons.	Gallons	lb.	lb.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
To Great-Britain - - -	23	5371	341	108,325 0 21	4,406	1313	140	91,972	352 7 6	1162 3 2	185,709 10 11
American States - -	20	1850	138	1,895 0 0	122,710	—	—	—	—	70 10 0	13,981 12 6
Britiſh Colonies in America	7	379	40	64 0 0	21,300	—	—	500	—	41 6 3	2,053 14 3
Foreign Weſt-Indies -	71	3085	377	—	140,660	—	—	—	—	89 4 0	12,396 19 0
Africa - - - -	1	102	8								
Total from Montſerrat and Nevis	122	10,787	904	110,284 0 21	289,076	1313	140	92,472	352 7 6	1363 3 5	214,141 16 8

VIRGIN ISLANDS.

To Great-Britain - - -	25	5137	344	78,749 1 6	517	2011	—	287,577	6561 2 6	2313 18 5	164,128 17 6
American States - -	3	572	21	91 0 0	13,900	—	—	1,500	—	6 4 0	1,499 9 0
Britiſh Colonies in America	4	226	20	363 0 0	7,000	—	—	—	—	10 5 0	1,230 15 0
Foreign Weſt-Indies -	8	581	51	—	—	—	—	—	90 0 0	10 11 0	100 11 0
Total from the Virgin Iſlands	40	6516	436	79,203 1 6	21,417	2011	—	289,077	6651 2 6	2340 18 5	166,959 12 6

SPANISH WEST-INDIES

CUBA.

CUBA is a large and very valuable iſland, and by far the moſt important of all the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies. On the eaſt ſide it begins at 20° 21′ north latitude, touches the tropic of Cancer on the north, and extends from 74° to 85° 15′ weſt longitude. It lies ſixty miles to the weſt of Hiſpaniola, twenty-five leagues north of Jamaica, one hundred miles to the eaſt of Jucatan, and as many to the ſouth of cape Florida, and commands the entrance of the gulphs both of Mexico and Florida, as alſo the windward paſſages. By this ſituation it may be called the key of the Weſt-Indies. It was diſcovered by Columbus in 1492, who gave it the name of Ferdinando, in honour of king Ferdinand of Spain, but it quickly after recovered its ancient name of Cuba. The natives did not regard Columbus with a very favourable eye at his landing, and the weather proving very tempeſtuous, he ſoon left this iſland, and ſailed to Hayta, now called Hiſpaniola, where he was better received. The Spaniards, however, ſoon became maſters of it. By the year 1511, it was totally conquered, and in that time they had deſtroyed, according to their own accounts, ſeveral millions of people. But the poſſeſſion of Cuba was far from anſwering the expectations of the Spaniſh adventurers, whoſe avarice could be ſatiated with nothing but gold. Theſe monſters finding that there was gold upon the iſland, concluded that it muſt come from mines, and therefore tortured the few inhabitants they had left, in order to extort from them a diſcovery of the places where theſe mines lay. The miſeries endured by theſe poor crea-

tures were ſuch, that they almoſt unanimouſly reſolved to put an end to their own lives, but were prevented by one of the Spaniſh tyrants called Vaſco Porcellos. This wretch threatened to hang himſelf along with them, that he might have the pleaſure, as he ſaid, of tormenting them in the next world worſe than he had done in this; and ſo much were they afraid of the Spaniards, that this threat diverted theſe poor ſavages from their deſperate reſolution. In 1511, the town of Havannah was built, now the principal place on the iſland. The houſes were at firſt built only of wood, and the town itſelf was for a long time ſo inconſiderable, that in 1536 it was taken by a French pirate, who obliged the inhabitants to pay ſeven hundred ducats to ſave it from being burnt. The very day after the pirate's departure, three Spaniſh ſhips arrived from Mexico, and having unloaded their cargoes, ſailed in purſuit of the pirate ſhip. But ſuch was the cowardice of the officers, that the pirate took all the three ſhips, and returning to the Havannah, obliged the inhabitants to pay ſeven hundred ducats more. To prevent misfortunes of this kind, the inhabitants built their houſes of ſtone, and the place has ſince been ſtrongly fortified.

According to Abbé Raynal, the Spaniſh ſettlement at Cuba is very important, on three accounts: 1. The produce of the country, which is conſiderable. 2. As being the ſtaple of a great trade; and, 3. As being the key to the Weſt-Indies. The principal produce of this iſland is cotton; the commodity, however, through neglect, is now become ſo ſcarce, that ſometimes ſeveral years paſs without any of it being brought into Europe. In the place of cotton, coffee has been cultivated, but by a ſimilar negligence, that is produced in no great quantity; the whole produced not exceeding thirty or thirty-five thouſand weight, one-third of which is exported to Vera Cruz, and the reſt to Madrid. The cultivation of coffee naturally leads to that of ſugar; and this, which is the moſt valuable production of America, would of itſelf be ſufficient to give Cuba that ſtate of proſperity for which it ſeems deſigned by nature. Although the ſurface of the iſland is in general uneven and mountainous, yet it has plains ſufficiently extenſive, and well enough watered, to ſupply the conſumption of the greateſt part of Europe with ſugar. The incredible fertility of its new lands, if properly managed, would enable it to ſurpaſs every other nation, however they may have now got the ſtart of it; yet ſuch is the indolence of the Spaniards, that to this day they have but few plantations, where with the fineſt canes, they make but a

ſmall

ſmall quantity of coarſe ſugar at a great expenſe. This ſerves partly for the Mexican market, and partly for the mother country, while the indolent inhabitants are content to import ſugar for themſelves at the expenſe of near two hundred and twenty thouſand pounds annually. It has been expected, with probability, that the tobacco imported from Cuba would compenſate this loſs, for after furniſhing Mexico and Peru, there was ſufficient, with the little brought from Caracca and Buenos Ayres, to ſupply all Spain. But this trade, too, has declined through the negligence of the court of Madrid, in not gratifying the general taſte for tobacco from the Havannah. The Spaniſh colonies have an univerſal trade in ſkins, and Cuba ſupplies annually about ten or twelve thouſand. The number might eaſily be increaſed in a country abounding with wild cattle, where ſome gentlemen poſſeſs large tracts of ground, that for want of population can ſcarce be applied to any other purpoſe than that of breeding cattle. The hundredth part of this iſland is not yet cleared; the true plantations are all confined to the beautiful plains of the Havannah, and even thoſe are not what they might be; all theſe plantations together may employ about twenty-five thouſand male and female ſlaves. The number of whites, meſtees, mulattoes, and free negroes upon the whole iſland, amounts to about thirty thouſand. The food of theſe different ſpecies conſiſts of excellent pork, very bad beef, and caſſava bread. The colony would be more flouriſhing if its productions had not been made the property of a company, whoſe excluſive privilege operates as a conſtant and invariable principle of diſcouragement. If any thing could ſupply the want of an open trade, and atone for the grievances occaſioned by this monopoly at Cuba, it would be the advantage which this iſland has for ſuch a long time enjoyed, in being the rendezvous of almoſt all the Spaniſh veſſels that ſail to the new world; this practice commenced almoſt with the colony itſelf. Ponce de Leon having made an attempt upon Florida in 1512, became acquainted with the new canal of Bahama; it was immediately diſcovered that this was the beſt route the ſhips bound from Mexico to Europe could poſſibly take, and to this the wealth of the iſland is principally, if not altogether, owing.

HISPANIOLA, OR ST. DOMINGO.

Hiſpaniola, called alſo St. Domingo, is the largeſt of the Caribbee iſlands, extending about four hundred and twenty miles from eaſt to weſt, and one hundred and twenty in breadth from north to

ſouth, lying between 17° 37′ and 20° of north latitude, and between 67° 35′ and 74° 15′ weſt longitude. The climate is hot, but not reckoned unwholeſome, and ſome of the inhabitants are ſaid to arrive at the age of one hundred and twenty. It is ſometimes refreſhed by breezes and rains, and its ſalubrity is likewiſe in a great meaſure owing to the beautiful variety of hills and valleys, woods and rivers, which every where preſent themſelves. It is indeed reckoned by far the fineſt and moſt pleaſant iſland of the Antilles, as being the beſt accommodated to all the purpoſes of life when duly cultivated.

This iſland, famous for being the earlieſt ſettlement of the Spaniards in the new world, was at firſt in high eſtimation for the quantity of gold it ſupplied; this wealth diminiſhed with the inhabitants of the country, whom they obliged to dig it out of the bowels of the earth; and the ſource of it was entirely dried up, when they were exterminated, which was quickly done, by a ſeries of the moſt ſhocking barbarities that ever diſgraced the hiſtory of any nation. Benzoni relates, that of two millions of inhabitants contained in the iſland when diſcovered by Columbus in 1492, ſcarce one hundred and fifty-three were alive in 1545. A vehement deſire of opening again this ſource of wealth, inſpired the thought of getting ſlaves from Africa; but, beſides that theſe were found unfit for the labours they were deſtined to, the multitude of mines which then began to be wrought on the continent, made thoſe of Hiſpaniola no longer of any importance. An idea now ſuggeſted itſelf, that their negroes which were healthy, ſtrong, and patient, might be uſefully employed in huſbandry; and they adopted, through neceſſity, a wiſe reſolution, which, had they known their own intereſt, they would have embraced by choice.

The produce of their induſtry was at firſt extremely ſmall, becauſe the labourers were few. Charles V. who, like moſt ſovereigns, preferred his favourites to every thing, had granted an excluſive right of the ſlave trade to a Flemiſh nobleman, who made over his privilege to the Genoeſe, who conducted this infamous commerce as all monopolies are conducted; they reſolved to ſell dear, and they ſold but few. When time and competition had fixed the natural and neceſſary price of ſlaves, the number of them increaſed. It may eaſily be imagined that the Spaniards, who had been accuſtomed to treat the Indians as beaſts, did not entertain a higher opinion of theſe negro Africans, whom they ſubſtituted in their place. Degraded ſtill farther in their eyes by the price they had paid for them, they aggravated

vated the weight of their ſervitude, it became intolerable, and theſe wretched ſlaves made an effort to recover the unalienable rights of mankind; their attempt proved unſucceſsful, but they reaped this benefit from their deſpair, that they were afterwards treated with leſs inhumanity.

This moderation, if tyranny cramped by the apprehenſion of revolt can deſerve that name, was attended with ſome good conſequences. Cultivation was purſued with ſome degree of ſucceſs. Soon after the middle of the 16th century, Spain drew annually from this colony ten millions weight of ſugar, a large quantity of wood for dying, tobacco, cacoa, caſſia, ginger, cotton, and peltry in abundance. One might imagine that ſuch favourable beginnings would give both the deſire and the means of carrying them farther; but a train of events more fatal each than the other, ruined theſe hopes.

The firſt misfortune aroſe from the depopulation of the iſland; the Spaniſh conqueſts on the continent ſhould naturally have contributed to promote the ſucceſs of an iſland, which nature ſeemed to have formed to be the center of that vaſt dominion ariſing around it, to be the ſtaple of the different colonies. But it fell out quite otherwiſe; on a view of the immenſe fortunes raiſing in Mexico, and other parts, the richeſt inhabitants of Hiſpaniola began to deſpiſe their ſettlements, and quitted the true ſource of riches, which is on the ſurface of the earth, to go and ranſack the bowels of it for veins of gold, which are quickly exhauſted. The government endeavoured in vain to put a ſtop to this emigration; the laws were always either artfully eluded, or openly violated.

The weakneſs, which was a neceſſary conſequence of ſuch a conduct, leaving the coaſts without defence, encouraged the enemies of Spain to ravage them. Even the capital of this iſland was taken and pillaged by that celebrated Engliſh ſailor, Sir Francis Drake. The cruiſers of leſs conſequence contented themſelves with intercepting veſſels in their paſſage through thoſe latitudes, the beſt known at that time of any in the new world. To complete theſe misfortunes, the Caſtilians themſelves commenced pirates; they attacked no ſhips but thoſe of their own nation, which were more rich, worſe provided, and worſe defended than any others. The cuſtom they had of fitting out ſhips clandeſtinely, in order to procure ſlaves, prevented them from being known, and the aſſiſtance they purchaſed from

the ſhips of war, commiſſioned to protect the trade, inſured to them impunity.

The foreign trade of the colony was its only reſource in this diſtreſs, and that was illicit; but as it continued to be carried on, notwithſtanding the vigilance of the governors, or, perhaps, by their connivance, the policy of an exaſperated and ſhort-ſighted court exerted itſelf in demoliſhing moſt of the ſea ports, and driving the miſerable inhabitants into the inland country. This act of violence threw them into a ſtate of dejection, which the incurſions and ſettlement of the French on the iſland afterwards carried to the utmoſt pitch. The latter, after having made ſome unſucceſsful attempts to ſettle on the iſland, had part of it yielded to them in 1697, and now enjoy by far the beſt ſhare.

Spain, totally taken up with that vaſt empire which ſhe had formed on the continent, uſed no pains to diſſipate this lethargy; ſhe even refuſed to liſten to the ſolicitations of her Flemiſh ſubjects, who earneſtly preſſed that they might have permiſſion to clear thoſe fertile lands. Rather than run the riſk of ſeeing them carry on a contraband trade on the coaſts, ſhe choſe to bury in oblivion a ſettlement which had been of conſequence, and was likely to become ſo again.

This colony, which had no longer any intercourſe with Spain but by a ſingle ſhip, of no great burden, that arrived from thence every third year, conſiſted, in 1717, of eighteen thouſand four hundred and ten inhabitants, including Spaniards, meſtees, negroes or mulattoes. The complexion and character of theſe people differed according to the different proportions of American, European and African blood they had received from that natural and tranſient union which reſtores all races and conditions to the ſame level. Theſe demi-ſavages, plunged in the extreme of ſloth, lived upon fruits and roots, dwelt in cottages without furniture, and moſt of them without clothes. The few among them, in whom indolence had not totally ſuppreſſed the ſenſe of decency and taſte for the conveniencies of life, purchaſed clothes of their neighbours the French in return for their cattle, and the money ſent to them for the maintenance of two hundred ſoldiers, the prieſts and the government. It doth not appear that the company, formed at Barcelona in 1757, with excluſive privileges for the re-eſtabliſhment of St. Domingo, hath as yet made any conſiderable progreſs. They ſend out only two ſmall veſſels annually, which are freighted back with ſix thouſand hides, and ſome other commodities of little value.

Domingo,

Domingo, the capital of the iſland, is ſeated in that part belonging to the Spaniards on the ſouth ſide of the iſland, and has a commodious harbour. The town is built in the Spaniſh manner, with a great ſquare in the middle of it, about which are the cathedral and other public buildings. From this ſquare run the principal ſtreets in a direct line, they being croſſed by others at right angles, ſo that the form of the town is almoſt ſquare. The country on the north and eaſt ſide is pleaſant and fruitful; and there is a large navigable river on the weſt, with the ocean on the ſouth. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop, an ancient royal audience, and the ſeat of the governor. It has ſeveral fine churches and monaſteries, and is ſo well fortified; that a fleet and army ſent by Oliver Cromwell, in 1654, could not take it. The inhabitants are Spaniards, negroes, mulattoes, meſtees, and Albatraces, of whom about a ſixth part may be Spaniards. It had formerly about two thouſand houſes, but it is much declined of late years. The river on which it is ſeated is called Ozama. Weſt longitude 69° 30′, north latitude 18° 25′.

PORTO RICO.

This iſland is ſituated between 64° and 67° weſt longitude, and 18° north latitude, lying between Hiſpaniola and St. Chriſtopher's. It is one hundred miles in length and forty in breadth.

Although this iſland had been diſcovered and viſited by Columbus in 1493, the Spaniards neglected it till 1509, when the thirſt of gold brought them thither from St. Domingo, under the command of Ponce de Leon, to make a conqueſt, which afterwards coſt them dear.

Porto Rico hath thirty-ſix leagues in length, eighteen in breadth, and one hundred in circumference. We may venture to affirm, that it is one of the beſt, if not entirely the beſt, of the iſlands of the new world, in proportion to its extent. The air is wholeſome, and tolerably temperate, and it is watered by the pure ſtreams of a conſiderable number of ſmall rivulets. Its mountains are covered with either uſeful or valuable trees, and its vallies have a degree of fertility ſeldom to be met with elſewhere. All the productions peculiar to America thrive upon this deep ſoil. A ſafe port, commodious harbours, and coaſts of eaſy acceſs, are added to theſe ſeveral advantages.

On this territory, deprived of its ſavage inhabitants by ferocious deeds, the memory of which more than three centuries have not been

been able to obliterate, was ſucceſſively formed a population of forty-four thouſand eight hundred and eighty-three men, either white or of a mixed race: moſt of them were naked: their habitations were nothing more than huts. Nature, with little or no aſſiſtance, ſupplied them with ſubſiſtence. The linens, and ſome other things of little value, which they clandeſtinely obtained from the neighbouring or from foreign iſlands, were paid for by the colony with tobacco, cattle, and with the money which was ſent by government for the ſupport of the civil, religious and military eſtabliſhment. They received from Spain annually only one ſmall veſſel, the cargo of which did not amount to more than ten thouſand crowns, and which returned to Europe laden with hides.

Such was Porto Rico, when, in 1765, the court of Madrid carried their attention to St. John, an excellent harbour, even for the royal navy, and which only wants a little more extent. The town which commands it was ſurrounded with fortifications. The works were made particularly ſtrong towards a narrow and marſhy neck of land, the only place by which the town can be attacked on the land ſide. Two battalions and one company of artillery croſſed the ſea for its defence.

At this period, a poſſeſſion which had annually received from the treaſury no more than three hundred and ſeventy-eight thouſand livres, coſt them two millions ſix hundred and thirty-four thouſand four hundred and thirty-three livres, which ſum was regularly brought from Mexico. This increaſe of ſpecie ſtimulated the coloniſts to undertake ſome labours: at the ſame time the iſland, which till then had been under the yoke of monopoly, was allowed to receive all Spaniſh navigators. Theſe two circumſtances united, imparted ſome degree of animation to a ſettlement, the languiſhing ſtate of which aſtoniſhed all nations. Its tithes, which before 1765 did not yield more than eighty-one thouſand livres, have increaſed to two hundred and thirty thouſand four hundred and eighteen livres.

On the firſt of January, 1778, the population of Porto Rico amounted to fourſcore thouſand ſix hundred and ſixty inhabitants, of which number only ſix thouſand five hundred and thirty were ſlaves. The inhabitants reckoned ſeventy-ſeven thouſand three hundred and eighty-four head of horned cattle, twenty-three thouſand one hundred and ninety-five horſes, fifteen hundred and fifteen mules, and forty-nine thouſand fifty-eight head of ſmall cattle.

The

The plantantions, the number of which were five thouſand ſix hundred and eighty-one, produced two thouſand ſeven hundred and thirty-ſeven quintals of ſugar; eleven hundred and fourteen quintals of cotton; eleven thouſand one hundred and ſixty-three quintals of coffee; nineteen thouſand five hundred and fifty-ſix quintals of rice; fifteen thouſand two hundred and ſixteen quintals of maize; ſeven thouſand four hundred and fifty-eight quintals of tobacco; and nine thouſand eight hundred and ſixty quintals of molaſſes.

The cattle in the ſeveral paſture grounds, which were two hundred and thirty-four in number, produced annually eleven thouſand three hundred and ſixty-four oxen; four thouſand three hundred and thirty-four horſes; nine hundred and fifty-two mules; thirty-one thouſand two hundred and fifty-four head of ſmall cattle.

Till the year 1778, no one citizen of Porto Rico was in reality maſter of his poſſeſſions. The commanders who had ſucceeded each other had only granted the income of them. This inconceivable defect hath at length been remedied: the proprietors have been confirmed in their poſſeſſions by a law, upon condition of paying annually one real and a quarter, or ſixteen ſols ſix deniers, for every portion of ground of twenty-five thouſand ſeven hundred and eight toiſes, which they employed in cultures; and three quarters of a real, or ten ſols one denier and a half, for that part of the ſoil that is reſerved for paſture ground. This eaſy tribute is to ſerve for the clothing of the militia, compoſed of one thouſand nine hundred infantry, and two hundred and fifty cavalry. The remainder of the iſland is diſtributed on the ſame conditions to thoſe who have little or no property. Theſe laſt, who are diſtinguiſhed by the name of Agregés, are ſeven thouſand eight hundred and thirty-five in number.

TRINIDAD AND MARGARETTA.

Trinidad is ſituated between 59° and 62° weſt longitude, and 10° north latitude; it was diſcovered by Columbus, who landed on it in 1498, but it was not till 1535 that the court of Madrid took poſſeſſion of it.

It is ſaid to comprehend three hundred and eighteen ſquare leagues. It hath never experienced any hurricane, and its climate is wholeſome. The rains are very abundant there from the middle of May to the end of October; and the dryneſs that prevails throughout the

reſt of the year is not attended with any inconvenience, becauſe the country, though deſtitute of navigable rivers, is very well watered. The earthquakes are more frequent than dangerous. In the interior part of the iſland there are four groups of mountains, which, together with ſome others formed by Nature upon the ſhores of the ocean, occupy a third part of the territory: the reſt is in general ſuſceptible of the richeſt cultures.

The form of the iſland is a long ſquare. To the north is a coaſt of twenty-two leagues in extent, too much elevated and too much divided ever to be of any uſe. The eaſtern coaſt is only nineteen leagues in extent, but in all parts as convenient as one could wiſh it to be. The ſouthern coaſt hath five-and-twenty leagues, is a little exalted, and adapted for the ſucceſsful cultivation of coffee and cacao. The land on the weſtern ſide is ſeparated from the reſt of the colony, to the ſouth by the Soldier's canal, and to the north by the Dragon's mouth, and forms, by means of a receſs, a harbour of twenty leagues in breadth, and thirty in depth. It offers, in all ſeaſons, a ſecure aſylum to the navigators, who, during the greateſt part of the year, would find it difficult to anchor any where elſe, except at the place called the Galiote.

In this part are the Spaniſh ſettlements: they conſiſt only of the port of Spain, upon which there are ſeventy-eight thatched huts; and of St. Joſeph, ſituated three leagues farther up the country, where eighty-eight families, ſtill more wretched than the former, are computed.

The cacao was formerly cultivated near theſe two villages; its excellence made it be preferred even to that of Caraccas. In order to ſecure it, the merchants uſed to pay for it beforehand. The trees that produced it periſhed all in 1727, and have not been re-planted ſince. The monks attributed this diſaſter to the coloniſts having refuſed to pay the tithes. Thoſe who were not blinded by intereſt or ſuperſtition, aſcribed it to the north winds, which have too frequently occaſioned the ſame kind of calamity in other parts. Since this period, Trinidad hath not been much more frequented than Cubagua; ſtill, however, it produces ſugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, and a variety of fruits, with ſome cotton trees and Indian corn, which render it of ſome importance.

Cubagua is a little iſland, at the diſtance of four leagues only from the continent, was diſcovered, and neglected by Columbus, in 1498. The Spaniards, being afterwards informed that its ſhores contained

great

great treaſures, repaired to it in multitudes in 1509, and gave it the name of Pearl Iſland.

The pearl bank was ſoon exhauſted, and the colony was transferred, in 1524, to Margaretta, where the regretted riches were found, and from whence they diſappeared almoſt as ſoon.

Yet this laſt ſettlement, which is fifteen leagues in length and five in breadth, was not abandoned. It is almoſt continually covered with thick fogs, although nature hath not beſtowed upon it any current waters. There is no village in it except Mon Padre, which is defended by a ſmall fort: its ſoil would be fruitful if it were cultivated.

It was almoſt generally ſuppoſed, that the court of Madrid, in preſerving Margaretta and Trinidad, meant rather to keep off rival nations from this continent than to derive any advantage from them: at preſent we are induced to think otherwiſe: convinced that the Archipelago of America was full of inhabitants loaded with debts, or who poſſeſſed but a ſmall quantity of indifferent land, the council of Charles III. offered great conceſſions, in theſe two iſlands, to thoſe who ſhould embrace their faith. The freedom of commerce with all the Spaniſh traders was inſured to them. They were only obliged to deliver their cacao to the company of Caraccas, but at twenty-ſeven ſols per pound, and under the condition that this company ſhould advance them ſome capital. Theſe overtures have only met with a favourable reception at Granada, from whence ſome Frenchmen have made their eſcape with a few ſlaves, either to ſkreen themſelves from the purſuits of their creditors, or from averſion to the ſway of the Engliſh. In every other part they have had no effect, whether from averſion for an oppreſſive government, or whether it be that the expectations of all are at preſent turned towards the north of the new world.

Trinidad and Margaretta are at preſent inhabited only by a few Spaniards, who, with ſome Indian women, have formed a race of men, who, uniting the indolence of the ſavage to the vices of civiliſed nations, are ſluggards, cheats and zealots. They live upon maize, upon what fiſh they catch, and upon bananas, which Nature, out of indulgence, as it were, to their ſlothfulneſs, produces there of a larger ſize, and better quality, than in any other part of the Archipelago. They have a breed of lean and taſteleſs cattle, with which they carry on a fraudulent traffic to the French colonies, exchanging them for camlets, black veils, linens, ſilk ſtockings, white hats, and

hardware. The number of their veſſels does not exceed thirty ſloops, without decks.

The tame animals of theſe two iſlands have filled the woods with a breed of horned cattle, which are become wild: the inhabitants ſhoot them, and cut their fleſh into ſlips of three inches in breadth and one in thickneſs, which they dry, after having melted the fat out of them, ſo that they will keep three or four months. This proviſion, which is called taſſajo, is ſold in the French ſettlements for twenty livres a hundred weight.

All the money which the government ſends to theſe two iſlands, falls into the hands of the commandants, the officers civil and military, and the monks. The remainder of the people, who do not amount to more than ſixteen hundred, live in a ſtate of the moſt deplorable poverty. In time of war they furniſh about two hundred men, who, for the ſake of plunder, offer themſelves, without diſtinction, to any of the colonies that happen to be fitting out cruizers for ſea. Beſides theſe, there are ſome other ſmall iſlands claimed by the Spaniards, but to which they have paid little or no attention.

FRENCH WEST-INDIES.

MARTINICO.

MARTINICO is the chief of the French Caribbee iſlands, the middle of which is ſituated in weſt longitude 61° 0′, north latitude 14° 30′.

This iſland was firſt ſettled by M. Deſnambuc a Frenchman, in the year 1635, with only one hundred men from St. Chriſtopher's. He choſe rather to have it peopled from thence than from Europe, as he foreſaw that men tired with the fatigue of ſuch a long voyage, would moſtly periſh ſoon after their arrival, either from the climate, or from the hardſhips incident to moſt emigrations. They completed their firſt ſettlement without any difficulty; the natives, intimidated by their fire arms, or ſeduced by promiſes, gave up the weſtern and ſouthern parts of the iſland to the new comers. In a ſhort time, however, perceiving the number of theſe enterpriſing ſtrangers daily increaſing, they reſolved to extirpate them, and therefore called in the ſavages of the neighbouring iſlands to aſſiſt them; they fell jointly upon a little fort that had been haſtily erected, but were repulſed with the loſs of ſeven or eight hundred of their beſt warriors, who were left dead upon the ſpot.

After this check, the ſavages for a long time diſappeared entirely, but at laſt they returned, bringing with them preſents to the French, and making excuſes for what had happened; they were received in a friendly manner, and the reconciliation ſealed with pots of brandy. This peaceable ſtate of affairs, however, was of no long continuance, the French took ſuch undue advantages of their ſuperiority over the ſavages, that they ſoon rekindled in the others that hatred which had never been entirely ſubdued. The ſavages ſeparated into ſmall bands,

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and waylaid the French as they came ſingly out into the woods to hunt, and waiting till the ſportſman had diſcharged his piece, ruſhed upon and killed him before he could charge it again. Twenty men had been thus aſſaſſinated before any reaſon could be given for their ſudden diſappearance; but as ſoon as the matter was known the French took a ſevere and fatal revenge; the ſavages were purſued and maſſacred, with their wives and children, and the few that eſcaped were driven out of Martinico, to which they never returned.

The French being thus left ſole maſters of the iſland, lived quietly on thoſe ſpots which beſt ſuited their inclinations. At this time they were divided into two claſſes; the firſt conſiſted of thoſe who had paid their paſſage to the iſland, and theſe were called inhabitants, and to theſe the government diſtributed lands, which became their own, upon paying a yearly tribute. Theſe inhabitants had under their command a multitude of diſorderly people brought over from Europe at their expenſe, whom they called *engagés*, or bondſmen. This engagement was a kind of ſlavery for the term of three years, on the expiration of which they were at liberty, and became the equals of thoſe whom they had ſerved. They all confined themſelves at firſt to the culture of tobacco and cotton, to which was ſoon added that of arnotto and indigo. The culture of ſugar alſo was begun about the year 1650. Ten years after, one Benjamin D'Acoſta, a Jew, planted ſome cacao trees, but his example was not followed till 1684, when chocolate was more commonly uſed in France. Cacao then became the principal ſupport of the coloniſts, who had not a ſufficient fund to undertake ſugar plantations; but by the inclemency of the ſeaſon in 1718, all the cacao trees were deſtroyed at once. Coffee was then propoſed as a proper object of culture: the French miniſtry had received as a preſent from the Dutch, two of theſe trees, which were carefully preſerved in the king's botanical garden. Two young ſhoots were taken from theſe, put on board a ſhip for Martinico, and entruſted to the care of one M. Deſclieux; this ſhip happened to be ſtraitened for want of freſh water, and the trees would have periſhed, had not the gentleman ſhared with them that quantity of water which was allowed for his own drinking. The culture of coffee was then begun, and attended with the greateſt and moſt rapid ſucceſs; about the end of the laſt century, however, the colony had made but ſmall advances. In 1700 it had only ſix thouſand five hundred and ninety-ſeven white inhabitants; the ſavages, mulattoes, and free negroes, men, women, and children, amounted to no more than

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five hundred and ſeven; the number of ſlaves was but fourteen thouſand five hundred and ſixty-ſix; all theſe together made a population of twenty-one thouſand ſix hundred and forty-five perſons.

After the peace of Utrecht, Martinico began to emerge from that feeble ſtate in which it had ſo long continued. The iſland then became the mart for all the windward French ſettlements; in its ports the neighbouring iſlands ſold their produce, and bought the commodities of the mother country; and, in ſhort, Martinico became famous all over Europe: their labour improved the plantations as far as was conſiſtent with the conſumption then made in Europe of American productions, and the annual exports from the iſland amounted to about ſeven hundred thouſand pounds.

The connections of Martinico with the other iſlands entitled her to the profits of commiſſion, and the charges of tranſport, as ſhe alone was in the poſſeſſion of carriages. This profit might be rated at the tenth of the produce; and the ſum total muſt have amounted to near ſeven hundred and ſixty-five thouſand pounds: this ſtanding debt was ſeldom called in, and left for the improvement of their plantations; it was increaſed by advances in money, ſlaves, and other neceſſary articles, ſo that Martinico became daily more and more a creditor to the other iſlands, and thus kept them in conſtant dependence.

The connections of this iſland with cape Breton, Canada, and Louiſiana, procured a market for the ordinary ſugars, the inferior coffee, the molaſſes, and rum, which would not ſell in France. In exchange the inhabitants received ſalt fiſh, dried vegetables, deals, and ſome flour. In the clandeſtine trade on the coaſts of Spaniſh America, conſiſting wholly of goods manufactured by the French nation, ſhe commonly made a profit of ninety per cent. on the value of about one hundred and ſeventy-five thouſand pounds, ſent yearly to the Caraccas, or neighbouring colonies.

Upwards of ſeven hundred and eighty-ſeven thouſand pounds were conſtantly circulated in this iſland with great rapidity; and this is perhaps the only country in the world where the ſpecie has been ſo conſiderable as to make it a matter of indifference to them whether they dealt in gold, ſilver, or commodities. This extenſive trade brought into the ports of Martinico annually two hundred ſhips from France; fourteen or fifteen fitted out by the mother country for the coaſt of Guinea, ſixty from Canada, ten or twelve from the iſlands of Margaretta and Trinidad, beſides the Engliſh and Dutch ſhips that

came to carry on a ſmuggling trade. The private navigation from the iſland to the northern colonies, to the Spaniſh continent, and to the windward iſlands, employed one hundred and twenty veſſels, from twenty to thirty tons burden.

The war of 1744 put a ſtop to this proſperity; not that the fault was in Martinico itſelf; its navy, conſtantly exerciſed, and accuſtomed to frequent engagements, which the carrying on a contraband trade required, was prepared for action. In leſs than ſix months, forty privateers, fitted out at St. Peter's, ſpread themſelves about the latitude of the Caribbee iſlands; yet an entire ſtop was put to the navigation of the colony, both to the Spaniſh coaſt and to Canada, and they were conſtantly diſturbed even on their own coaſts. The few ſhips that came from France in order to compenſate the hazards they were expoſed to by the loſs of their commodities, ſold them at a very advanced price, and bought them at a very low one.

When every thing thus ſeemed tending to decay, the peace at laſt reſtored the freedom of trade, and with it the hopes of recovering the ancient proſperity of the iſland; the event, however, did not anſwer the pains that were taken to attain it. Two years had not elapſed after the ceſſation of hoſtilities, when the colony loſt the contraband trade ſhe carried on with the American Spaniards. This loſs was not ſo ſenſibly felt by the colony as the hardſhips brought upon them by the mother country; an unſkilful adminiſtration clogged the reciprocal and neceſſary connection between the iſlands and North-America with ſo many formalities, that in 1755 Martinico ſent but four veſſels to Canada. The direction of its colonies, now committed to the care of ignorant and avaricious clerks, it ſoon loſt its importance, ſunk into contempt, and was proſtituted to venality. The war broke out afreſh, and after a ſeries of misfortunes and defeats, the iſland fell into the hands of the Britiſh; it was reſtored in July 1763, ſixteen months after it had been conquered, but deprived of all the neceſſary means of proſperity that had made it of ſo much importance. The contraband trade carried on to the Spaniſh coaſts was almoſt entirely loſt, the ceſſion of Canada to Great-Britain precluded all hopes of opening again a communication, which had only been interrupted by temporary miſtakes. The productions of the Grenades, St. Vincent, and Dominica, which were now become Britiſh dominions, could no longer be brought into their harbours, and a new regulation of the mother country, which forbad her having

having any intercourſe with Guadaloupe, left her no hopes from that quarter.

The colony, thus deprived of every thing as it were, and deſtitute, nevertheleſs contained, at the laſt ſurvey, which was taken on the firſt of January, 1770, in the compaſs of twenty-eight pariſhes, twelve thouſand four hundred and fifty white people of all ages and of both ſexes; one thouſand eight hundred and fourteen free blacks or mulattoes; ſeventy thouſand five hundred and fifty-three ſlaves; and four hundred and forty-three fugitive negroes. The number of births in 1766, was in the proportion of one in thirty among the white people, and of one in twenty-five among the blacks.

The iſland is ſixteen leagues in length, and forty-five in circumference, leaving out the capes, ſome of which extend two or three leagues into the ſea; it is very uneven, and interſected in all parts by a number of hillocks, which are moſtly of a conical form. Three mountains riſe above theſe ſmaller eminences; the higheſt bears the indelible marks of a volcano; the woods with which it is covered, continually attract the clouds, which occaſion noxious damps, and contribute to make it horrid and inacceſſible, while the two others are in moſt parts cultivated. From theſe mountains iſſue the many ſprings that water the iſland; theſe waters, which flow in gentle ſtreams, are changed into torrents on the ſlighteſt ſtorm; their qualities are derived from the ſoil over which they flow; in ſome places they are excellent, in others ſo bad, that the inhabitants are obliged to drink the water they have collected during the rainy ſeaſon.

Of all the French ſettlements in the Weſt-Indies, Martinico is the moſt happily ſituated with regard to the winds which prevail in thoſe ſeas. Its harbours poſſeſs the moſt ineſtimable advantage of affording a certain ſhelter from the hurricanes which annoy theſe latitudes. The harbour of Fort Royal is one of the beſt in all the windward iſlands, and ſo celebrated for its ſafety, that when it was open to the Dutch, their ſhipmaſters had orders from the republic to take ſhelter there in June, July, and Auguſt, the three months in which the hurricanes are moſt frequent. The lands of the Lamentin, which are but a league diſtant, are the richeſt and moſt fertile in the whole iſland. The numerous ſtreams which water this fruitful country, convey loaded canoes to a conſiderable diſtance from the ſea; the protection of the fortifications ſecure the peaceable enjoyment of ſo many advantages, which, however, are balanced by a

ſwampy and unwholeſome ſoil. This capital of Martinico is alſo the rendezvous of the men of war, which branch of the navy has always oppreſſed the merchantmen. On this account Fort Royal was an improper place to become the center of trade, and was therefore removed to St. Peter's. This little town, notwithſtanding the fires that have four times reduced it to aſhes, ſtill contains one thouſand ſeven hundred houſes. It is ſituated on the weſtern coaſt of the iſland, on a bay or inlet, which is almoſt circular; one part of it is built on the ſtrand along the ſea ſide, which is called the anchorage, and is the place deſtined for ſhips and warehouſes: the other part of the town ſtands upon a low hill; it is called the Fort, from a ſmall fortification that was built there in 1665, to check the ſeditions of the inhabitants againſt the tyranny of monopoly, but it now ſerves to protect the road from foreign enemies; theſe two parts of the town are ſeparated by a rivulet.

The anchorage is at the back of a pretty high and ſteep hill. Shut up as it were by this hill, which intercepts the eaſterly winds, the moſt conſtant and moſt ſalubrious in theſe parts; expoſed, without any refreſhing breezes, to the ſcorching beams of the ſun, reflected from the hill, from the ſea, and the black ſand on the beach; this place is extremely hot, and always unwholeſome; beſides, there is no harbour, and the ſhips which cannot winter ſafely upon this coaſt, are obliged to take ſhelter at Fort Royal. But theſe diſadvantages are compenſated by the conveniency of the road of St. Peter's for loading and unloading of goods, and by its ſituation, which is ſuch that ſhips can freely go in and out at all times, and with all winds.

GUADALOUPE.

The middle of this iſland is ſeated in about north latitude 16° 30′, weſt longitude 61° 20′; it is of an irregular figure, may be about eighty leagues in circumference, and is divided into two parts by a ſmall arm of the ſea, which is not above two leagues long, and from fifteen to forty fathoms broad. This canal, known by the name of the Salt river, is navigable, but will only carry veſſels of fifty tons burden.

That part of the iſland which gives its name to the whole colony, is, towards the center, full of craggy rocks, where the cold is ſo intenſe, that nothing will grow upon them but fern, and ſome uſeleſs ſhrubs covered with moſs. On the top of theſe rocks, a mountain called la Souphriere, or the Brimſtone mountain, riſes to an immenſe

menſe height; it exhales, through various openings, a thick black ſmoke, intermixed with ſparks that are viſible by night. From all theſe hills flow numberleſs ſprings, which fertilize the plains below, and moderate the burning heat of the climate by a refreſhing ſtream, ſo celebrated, that the galleons which formerly uſed to touch at the Windward iſlands, had orders to renew their proviſion with this pure and ſalubrious water: ſuch is that part of the iſland properly called Guadaloupe. That which is commonly called Grand Terre, has not been ſo much favoured by nature; it is indeed leſs rugged, but it wants ſprings and rivers; the ſoil is not ſo fertile, or the climate ſo wholeſome, or pleaſant.

No European nation had yet taken poſſeſſion of this iſland, when five hundred and fifty Frenchmen, led on by two gentlemen named Loline and Dupleſſis, arrived there from Dieppe on the 28th of June 1635. They had been very imprudent in their preparations; their proviſions were ſo ill choſen, that they were ſpoiled in the paſſage, and they had ſhipped ſo few, that they were exhauſted in two months: they were ſupplied with more from the mother country. St. Chriſtopher's, whether from ſcarcity or deſign, refuſed to ſpare them any, and the firſt attempts in huſbandry they made in the country, could not as yet afford any thing. No reſource was left for the colony but from the ſavages, but the ſuperfluities of a people who cultivate but little, and therefore had never laid up any ſtores, could not be very conſiderable. The new comers, not content with what the ſavages might freely and voluntarily bring, came to a reſolution to plunder them, and hoſtilities commenced on the ſixteenth of January, 1636.

A dreadful famine was the conſequence of this kind of war; the coloniſts were reduced to graze in the fields, to eat their own excrements, and to dig up dead bodies for their ſubſiſtence. Many who had been ſlaves at Algiers, held in abhorrence the hands that had broken their fetters, and all of them curſed their exiſtence. It was in this manner that they atoned for the crime of their invaſion, till the government of Aubert brought a peace with the ſavages at the end of the year 1640.

The few inhabitants who had eſcaped the calamities they had drawn upon themſelves, were ſoon joined by ſome diſcontented coloniſts from St. Chriſtopher's, by Europeans fond of novelty, by ſailors tired of navigation, and by ſome ſea captains, who prudently choſe to commit to the care of a grateful ſoil the treaſures they

had ſaved from the dangers of the ſea. But ſtill the proſperity of Guadaloupe was ſtopped or impeded by obſtacles ariſing from its ſituation.

The facility with which the pirates from the neighbouring iſlands could carry off their cattle, their ſlaves, their very crops, frequently brought them into a deſperate ſituation. Inteſtine broils, ariſing from jealouſies of authority, often diſturbed the quiet of the planters. The adventurers who went over to the Windward iſlands, diſdaining a land that was fitter for agriculture than for naval expedition, were eaſily drawn to Martinico by the convenient roads it abounds with. The protection of thoſe intrepid pirates brought to that iſland, all the traders who flattered themſelves that they might buy up the ſpoils of the enemy at a low price, and all the planters who thought they might ſafely give themſelves up to peaceful labours. This quick population could not fail of introducing the civil and military government of the Caribbee iſlands into Martinico. From that time the French miniſtry attended more ſeriouſly to this than to the other colonies, which were not ſo immediately under their direction, and hearing chiefly of this iſland, they turned all their encouragement that way.

It was in conſequence of this preference, that in 1700, the number of inhabitants in Guadaloupe amounted only to three thouſand eight hundred and twenty-five white people; three hundred and twenty-five ſavages, free negroes, mulattoes; and ſix thouſand ſeven hundred and twenty-five ſlaves, many of whom were Caribs.

At the end of the year 1755, the colony was peopled with nine thouſand ſix hundred and forty-three whites, forty-one thouſand one hundred and forty ſlaves of all ages and of both ſexes. Her ſaleable commodities were the produce of three hundred and thirty-four ſugar plantations; fifteen plots of indigo; forty-ſix thouſand eight hundred and forty ſtems of cacao; eleven thouſand ſeven hundred of tobacco; two million two hundred and fifty-ſeven thouſand ſeven hundred and twenty-five of coffee; twelve million ſeven hundred and forty-eight thouſand four hundred and forty-ſeven of cotton. For her proviſions ſhe had twenty-nine ſquares of rice or maize, and one thouſand two hundred and nineteen of potatoes or yams; two million and twenty-eight thouſand five hundred and twenty banana trees, and thirty-two million five hundred and ſeventy-ſeven thouſand nine hundred and fifty trenches of caſſava. The cattle of Guadaloupe

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conſiſted of four thouſand nine hundred and forty-ſix horſes; two thouſand nine hundred and twenty-four mules; one hundred and twenty-five aſſes; thirteen thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixteen head of horned cattle; eleven thouſand one hundred and ſixty-two ſheep or goats, and two thouſand four hundred and forty-four hogs. Such was the ſtate of Guadaloupe when it was conquered by the Britiſh in the month of April, 1759.

The colony, with its dependencies, was reſtored to France by the treaty of peace in July, 1763.

By a ſurvey taken in 1767, this iſland, including the ſmaller iſlands, Deſeada, St. Bartholomew, Marigalante, and the Saints, dependent upon it, contained eleven thouſand eight hundred and ſixty-three white people of all ages and of both ſexes; ſeven hundred and fifty-two free blacks and mulattoes; ſeventy-two thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty-one ſlaves; which makes in all a population of eighty-five thouſand three hundred and ſeventy-ſix ſouls. The cattle conſiſted of five thouſand and ſixty horſes; four thouſand eight hundred and fifty-four mules; one hundred and eleven aſſes; ſeventeen thouſand three hundred and ſeventy-eight head of horned cattle; fourteen thouſand eight hundred and ninety-five ſheep or goats, and two thouſand ſix hundred and ſixty-nine hogs. The proviſion was thirty million four hundred and ſeventy-ſix thouſand two hundred and eighteen trenches of caſſava; two million eight hundred and nineteen thouſand two hundred and ſixty-two banana trees; two thouſand one hundred and eighteen ſquares of land planted with yams and potatoes. The plantations contained ſeventy-two arnotto trees; three hundred and twenty-ſeven of caſſia; thirteen thouſand two hundred and ninety-two of cacao; five million eight hundred and eighty-one thouſand one hundred and ſeventy-ſix of coffee; twelve million one hundred and fifty-ſix thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty-nine of cotton; twenty-one thouſand four hundred and ſeventy-four ſquares of land planted with ſugar-canes. The woods occupied twenty-two thouſand and ninety-ſeven ſquares of land; there were twenty thouſand two hundred and forty-ſeven in meadows, and ſix thouſand four hundred and five uncultivated or forſaken. Only one thouſand five hundred and eighty-two plantations grew cotton, coffee and proviſions. Sugar was made but in four hundred and one. Theſe ſugar works employed one hundred and forty water-mills, two hundred and ſixty-three turned by oxen, and eleven wind-mills.

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The produce of Guadaloupe, including what is poured in from the ſmall iſlands under her dominion, ought to be very conſiderable; but in 1768, it yielded to the mother country no more than one hundred and forty thouſand four hundred and eighteen quintals of fine ſugar; twenty-three thouſand ſix hundred and three quintals of raw ſugar; thirty-four thouſand two hundred and five quintals of coffee; eleven thouſand nine hundred and fifty-five quintals of cotton; four hundred and fifty-ſix quintals of cacao; one thouſand eight hundred and eighty-four quintals of ginger; two thouſand five hundred and twenty-nine quintals of logwood; twenty-four cheſts of ſweetmeats; one hundred and ſixty-five cheſts of liquors; thirty-four caſks of rum, and twelve hundred and two undreſſed ſkins. All theſe commodities were ſold in the colony only for three hundred and ten thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-two pounds, eighteen ſhillings and three pence; and the merchandiſe it received from France has coſt but one hundred and ninety-ſeven thouſand nine hundred and nineteen pounds, eighteen ſhillings and ſix-pence; but from that period it conſiderably increaſed till the late troubles.

SAINT LUCIA.

Saint Lucia is about twenty-two miles long and eleven broad, the middle of it lying in north latitude 39° 14′, weſt longitude 27° 0′. It was firſt ſettled by the French in 1650, but was reduced by the Engliſh in 1664, who evacuated it in 1666. The French immediately reſettled the iſland, but were again driven away by the Caribs. As ſoon as the ſavages were gone the former inhabitants returned, but only for a ſhort time; for being afraid of falling a prey to the firſt privateer that ſhould viſit their coaſts, they removed either to other French ſettlements that were ſtronger, or which they might expect to be better defended. There was then no regular culture or colony at St. Lucia, it was only frequented by the inhabitants of Martinico, who came thither to cut wood and to build canoes, and who had conſiderable docks on the iſland. In 1718 it was again ſettled by the French; but four years after, it was given by the court of London to the duke of Montague, who was ſent to take poſſeſſion of it. This occaſioned ſome diſturbance between the two courts; which was ſettled, however, by an agreement made in 1731, that, till the reſpective claims ſhould be finally adjuſted, the iſland ſhould be evacuated by both nations, but that both ſhould wood and water

there.

there. This precarious agreement furniſhed an opportunity for private intereſt to exert itſelf. The Engliſh no longer moleſted the French in their habitations, but employed them as their aſſiſtants in carrying on with richer colonies a ſmuggling trade, which the ſubjects of both governments thought equally advantageous to them. This trade was more or leſs conſiderable till the treaty of 1763, when the property of St. Lucia was ſecured to the crown of France. After that time the colony flouriſhed conſiderably. In the beginning of the year 1772, the number of white people amounted to two thouſand and eighteen, men, women and children; that of the blacks to ſix hundred and ſixty-three freemen, and twelve thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-five ſlaves. There were ſeven hundred and ſix dwelling places. The annual revenue at that time was about one hundred and ſeventy-five thouſand pounds, which, according to the Abbé Raynal, muſt have increaſed one-eighth yearly for ſome time. It was taken by the Britiſh fleet under admirals Byron and Barrington in the year 1778, but was reſtored to France at the peace of 1783.

The ſoil of St. Lucia is tolerably good, even at the ſea ſide; and is much better the farther one advances into the country. The whole of it is capable of cultivation, except ſome high and craggy mountains, which bear evident marks of old volcanoes. In one deep valley there are ſtill eight or ten ponds, the water of which boils up in a dreadful manner, and retains ſome of its heat at the diſtance of ſix thouſand toiſes from its reſervoirs. The air in the inland parts, like that of all other uninhabited countries, is foul and unwholeſome, but grows leſs noxious as the woods are cleared and the ground laid open. On ſome parts of the ſea coaſt the air is ſtill more unhealthy, on account of ſome ſmall rivers which ſpring from the foot of the mountains, and have not ſufficient ſlope to waſh down the ſands with which the influx of the ocean ſtops up their mouths, by which means they ſpread themſelves into unwholeſome marſhes on the neighbouring grounds.

TOBAGO.

Tobago is ſituated in 11° odd minutes north latitude, one hundred and twenty miles ſouth of Barbadoes, and about the ſame diſtance from the Spaniſh main. It is about thirty-two miles in length and nine in breadth. The climate here is not ſo hot as might be expected ſo near the equator; and it is ſaid, that it lies out of the courſe of thoſe hurricanes that have ſometimes proved ſo fatal to the other

Weſt-

Weſt-India iſlands. It has a fruitful ſoil, capable of producing ſugar, and indeed every thing elſe that is raiſed in the Weſt-Indies, with the addition, if we may believe the Dutch, of the cinnamon, nutmeg and gum copal. It is well watered with numerous ſprings; and its bays and rivers are ſo diſpoſed as to be very commodious for all kind of ſhipping. The value and importance of this iſland appears from the expenſive and formidable armaments ſent thither by European powers in ſupport of their different claims. It ſeems to have been chiefly poſſeſſed by the Dutch, who defended their pretenſions againſt both England and France with the moſt obſtinate perſeverance. By the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral, though, by the treaty of peace in 1763, it was yielded up to Great-Britain; but, in June, 1781, it was taken by the French, and ceded to them by the treaty of 1783.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW, DESEADA AND MARIGALANTE,

Are three ſmall iſlands lying in the neighbourhood of Antigua and St. Chriſtopher's, and are of no great conſequence to the French, except in time of war, when they give ſhelter to an incredible number of privateers, which greatly annoy the Britiſh Weſt-India trade. St. Bartholomew is now to be conſidered as belonging to the crown of Sweden, being ceded to it by France in 1785.

HISPANIOLA.

In noticing the Spaniſh ſettlements in this part of the globe, we have already taken a general view of this iſland; it only therefore remains to notice the French ſettlements thereon.

The French towns are, Cape François, the capital, containing ſeveral years ago, about eight thouſand whites and blacks. Leogane, though inferior in point of ſize, is a good port, a place of conſiderable trade, and the ſeat of the French government in that iſland. They have two other towns, conſiderable for their trade, Petit Guaves and port Louis.

The following is ſaid to be an exact ſtatement of the population, product and commerce of the French colony of Hiſpaniola in the year 1788, and may ſerve to ſhew the immenſe loſſes ſuſtained by the late inſurrections of the negroes.

Whites, twenty-ſeven thouſand ſeven hundred and ſeventeen; free people of colour, twenty-one thouſand eight hundred and eight; ſlaves, four hundred and five thouſand five hundred and twenty-eight.

The

The plantations were, of ſugar, ſeven hundred and ninety-two; of indigo, three thouſand and ninety-ſeven; of cotton, ſeven hundred and five; of coffee, two thouſand eight hundred and ten. The manufactories were, diſtilleries, one hundred and ſeventy-three; of brick and potter's ware, ſixty-three; of cacao, ſixty-nine, and three tanners.

Its productions exported to France were, ſeventy millions two hundred and twenty-ſeven thouſand ſeven hundred and nine pounds of white ſugar; ninety-three millions one hundred and ſeventy-ſeven thouſand five hundred and eighteen ditto of brut ditto; ſixty-eight millions one hundred and fifty-one thouſand one hundred and eighty-one ditto of coffee; nine hundred and thirty thouſand and ſixteen pounds of indigo; ſix millions two hundred and eighty-ſix thouſand one hundred and twenty-ſix ditto of cotton; and twelve thouſand nine hundred and ninety-five dreſſed ſkins.

Sold to American, Engliſh and Dutch ſmugglers; twenty-five millions of pounds of brut ſugars; twelve millions ditto of coffee; and three millions ditto of cotton.

The molaſſes exported in American bottoms, valued at one million of dollars; valuable wood, exported in French ſhips, two hundred thouſand dollars.

Its trade employed five hundred and eighty large ſhips, carrying one hundred and eighty-nine thouſand ſix hundred and ſeventy-nine tons, in which the imports amounted to twelve millions of dollars, of which more than eight millions of dollars were in manufactured goods of France, and the other four millions in French produce.

The Spaniſh ſhips exported in French goods, or money, one million four hundred thouſand dollars, for mules imported by them into the colony.

Ninety-eight French ſhips, carrying forty thouſand one hundred and thirty tons, imported twenty-nine thouſand five hundred and ſix negroes, which ſold for eight millions of dollars.

The negroes in the French diviſion of this iſland have, for ſeveral years paſt, been in a ſtate of inſurrection. In the progreſs of theſe diſturbances, which have not yet ſubſided, the planters and others have ſuſtained immenſe loſſes. As this unhappy affair has engaged much of the attention of the public, we are happy in being able to give a ſummary ſtatement of the cauſes of this inſurrection.*

* From a pamphlet publiſhed in 1792, entitled, "An Inquiry into the Cauſes of the Inſurrection of the Negroes, in the Iſland of St. Domingo."

The ſituation of the French colonies early attracted the attention of the Conſtituent Aſſembly. At this time all was as tranquil *as ſuch a ſtate of oppreſſion would permit.* Political health can only be attributed to a country with a free conſtitution. The ſituation of the iſland is that of a paralytic; one part is torpid, whilſt the other is affected with the frantic motions of St. Vitus's dance.

The firſt interference of the National Aſſembly in the affairs of the colonies, was by a decree of the 8th of March, 1790, which declared, That all free perſons, who were proprietors and reſidents of two years ſtanding, and who contributed to the exigencies of the ſtate, ſhould exerciſe the rights of voting, which conſtitute the quality of French citizens.

This decree, though in fact it gave no new rights to the peopl of colour, was regarded with a jealous eye by the white planters, who evidently ſaw that the generality of the qualification included all deſcriptions of proprietors; they affected, however, to impoſe a different conſtruction upon it. The people of colour appealed to common juſtice and common ſenſe: it was to no purpoſe, the whites repelled them from their aſſemblies; ſome commotions enſued, in which they mutually fell a ſacrifice to their pride and reſentment.

Theſe diſturbances again excited the vigilance of the National Aſſembly; a decree was paſſed on the 12th of October, 1790, by which the Aſſembly declared, as a conſtitutional article, "That they would eſtabliſh no regulations reſpecting the internal government of the colonies, without the preciſe and formal requeſt of the colonial aſſemblies."

Peace, however, was not the conſequence of this decree. The proprietors, it is true, had obtained a *legal* right of TYRANNIZING, but the unfortunate queſtion ſtill recurred, Who ſhould be permitted to exerciſe that right? On this head the decree was ſilent. New diſſenſions aroſe; each of the parties covered, under a factious patriotiſm, the moſt atrocious deſigns. Aſſaſſination and revolt became frequent. Mauduit, a French officer of rank, loſt his life by the hands of his own countrymen. At length the unfortunate Oge, a planter of colour, who had exerted himſelf in France in the cauſe of his brethren, reſolved to ſupport by force their juſt pretenſions. He landed in the Spaniſh territory of St. Domingo, where he aſſembled about ſix hundred mulattoes. Before he proceeded to hoſtilities he wrote to the French general, that his deſire was for peace, provided the laws were enforced. His letter was abſurdly conſidered as a declaration

ration of war. Being attacked and vanquiſhed, he took refuge amongſt the Spaniards, who delivered him up to his adverſaries. The horrors of his death were the harbingers of future crimes. Theſe diſturbances ſtill increaſing, the National Aſſembly found it neceſſary at length to decide between the contending parties.

On the 15th of May, 1791, a decree was made, conſiſting of two articles, by the firſt of which the Aſſembly confirmed that of the 12th of October, ſo far as reſpected the ſlaves in their iſlands. It is true, that the word ſlave was cautiouſly omitted in this document, and they are only characteriſed by the negative deſcription of "men not free," as if right and wrong depended on a play of words, or a mode of expreſſion.

This part of the decree met with but little oppoſition, though it paſſed not without ſevere reprehenſion from a few enlightened members. The ſecond article, reſpecting the people of colour, was ſtrongly conteſted: thoſe who were before known by the appellation of patriots divided upon it. It was, however, determined in the reſult, that the people of colour, born of free parents, ſhould be conſidered as active citizens, and be eligible to the offices of government in the iſlands.

This ſecond article, which decided upon a right that the people of colour had been entitled to for upwards of a century, inſtead of reſtoring peace, has been the pretext for all the ſubſequent evils that the colony of St. Domingo has ſuſtained. They aroſe not indeed from its execution, but from its counteraction by the white coloniſts. Had they, after the awful warnings they had already experienced, obeyed the ordinances of an Aſſembly they pretended to revere; had they imbibed one drop of the true ſpirit of that conſtitution to which they had avowed an inviolable attachment; had they even ſuppreſſed the dictates of pride in the ſuggeſtions of prudence, the ſtorm that threatened them had been averted, and in their obedience to the parent ſtate they had diſplayed an act of patriotiſm, and preſerved themſelves from all poſſibility of danger.

But the equalization of the people of colour ſtung the irritable nerves of the white coloniſts. *The deſcendants of ſlaves may loſe the reſentments of their fathers; but the hatred of a deſpot is hereditary.* The European maxim allows, "That they never pardon who have done the wrong;" but in the colonies this perverſity attains a more monſtrous growth, and the averſion to African blood deſcends from generation to generation. No ſooner had the decree paſſed, than the

deputies from the iſlands to the National Aſſembly withdrew their attendance: the colonial committee, always under the influence of the planters, ſuſpended their labours. Its arrival in the iſland ſtruck the whites with conſternation: they vowed to ſacrifice their lives rather than ſuffer the execution of the decree. Their rage originating in deſpotiſm and phrenzy carried them ſo far that they propoſed to impriſon the French merchants then in the iſland, to tear down the national flag, and hoiſt the *Britiſh ſtandard* in its place, whilſt the joy of the mulattoes was mingled with apprehenſions and with fears. St. Domingo re-echoed with the cries of the whites, with their menaces and blaſphemies againſt the conſtitution. A motion was made in the ſtreets to fire upon the people of colour, who fled from the city, and took refuge in the plantations of their friends and in the woods: they were at length recalled by proclamation; but it was only to ſwear ſubordination to the whites, and to be witneſſes of freſh enormities. Amidſt theſe agitations the ſlaves had remained in their accuſtomed ſubordination; nor was it till the month of Auguſt, 1791, that the ſymptoms of the inſurrection appeared amongſt them.

A conſiderable number, both of whites and people of colour, had loſt their lives in theſe commotions before the ſlaves had given indications of diſaffection; they were not, however, inſenſible of the opportunities of revolt afforded by the diſſenſions of their maſters; they had learnt that no alleviation of their miſeries was ever to be expected from Europe; that in the ſtruggle for colonial dominion, their humble intereſts had been equally ſacrificed or forgotten by all parties. They felt their curb relaxed by the diſarming and diſperſion of their mulatto maſters, who had been accuſtomed to keep them under rigorous diſcipline. Hopeleſs of relief from any quarter, they roſe in different parts, and ſpread deſolation over the iſland. If the cold cruelties of deſpotiſm have no bounds, what ſhall be expected from the paroxyſms of deſpair?

On the 11th of September, 1791, a convention took place, which produced the agreement called the Concordat, by which the white planters ſtipulated, that they would no longer oppoſe the law of the 15th of May, which gave political rights to the people of colour. The colonial Aſſembly even promiſed to meliorate the ſituation of the people of colour, born of parents not free, and to whom the decree of the 15th of May did not extend. An union was formed between the planters, which, if it had ſooner taken place, had prevented the inſurrection.

rection. The insurgents were every where dispirited, repulsed, and dispersed; and the colony itself preserved from total destruction.

By a decree of the National Assembly, the 24th of September, the people of colour were virtually excluded from all right of colonial legislation, and expressly placed in the power of the white colonists.

If the decree of the 15th of May could instigate the white colonists to the frantic acts of violence before described, what shall we suppose were the feelings of the people of colour on that of the 24th of September, which again blasted those hopes they had justly founded on the constitutional law of the parent state, and the solemn ratification of the white colonists? No sooner was it known in the islands, than those dissensions which the revolt of the negroes had for a while appeased, broke out with fresh violence. The apprehensions entertained from the slaves had been allayed by the effects of the Concordat; but the whites no sooner found themselves relieved from the terrors of immediate destruction, than they availed themselves of the decree of the 24th of September; they formally revoked the Concordat, and treacherously refused to comply with an engagement to which they owed their very existence. The people of colour were in arms; they attacked the whites in the southern provinces; they possessed themselves of Fort St. Louis, and defeated their opponents in several engagements. A powerful body surrounded Port au Prince, the capital of the island, and claimed the execution of the Concordat. At three different times did the whites assent to the requisition, and as often broke their engagement. Gratified with the predilection for monarchy and aristocracy, which the Constituent Assembly had in its dotage avowed, they affected the appellation of patriots, and had the address to transfer the popular odium to the people of colour, who were contending for their INDISPUTABLE RIGHTS, and to the few white colonists who had virtue enough to espouse their cause. Under this pretext, the municipality of Port au Prince required M. Grimoard, the captain of the Boreas, a French line of battle ship, to bring his guns to bear upon, and to cannonade the people of colour assembled near the town: he at first refused, but the crew, deluded by the cry of patriotism, enforced his compliance. No sooner was this measure adopted, than the people of colour gave a loose to their indignation; they spread over the country, and set fire indiscriminately to all the plantations; the greatest part of the town of Port au Prince soon after shared the same fate. Nothing seemed to remain for the white inhabitants but to seek their safety in quitting the colony.

In

In the northern parts the people of colour adopted a more magnanimous and perhaps a more prudent conduct. "They begun," says Mr. Verniaud, "by offering their blood to the whites. "We shall wait," said they, "till we have saved you, before we assert our own claims." They accordingly opposed themselves to the revolted negroes with unexampled courage, and endeavoured to soothe them by attending to their reasonable requisitions.

After this recital of authentic and indisputable facts, it is not difficult to trace the causes of the insurrection. The effects we leave to be described by the professed historian; but the prudent measures of the French government we flatter ourselves will ultimately succeed in extending peace and liberty to every inhabitant of this, and all the other islands under their dominion; and may the godlike plan for the liberation and happiness of the African, be speedily imitated by those governments in Europe who have not had sufficient virtue to set the example.*

* In this account of the French West-India islands it will no doubt be remarked, that we have taken no notice of the conquest of some of them by Great-Britain during the present war. The very great probability that they will soon acknowledge their former dependency on France, and perhaps join in extending her victories over some of the British islands, must be our excuse; but if this is not deemed sufficient, we have only to remark, that the common practice of surrendering, as the price of peace, what has been purchased during a war by a torrent of human blood, render it impossible to say what will, in a few months, belong to England or France.

DUTCH WEST-INDIES.

St. EUSTATIUS,

SITUATED in 17° 29′ north latitude, and 63° 10′ weſt longitude, and three leagues north-weſt of St. Chriſtopher's, is only a mountain, about twenty-nine miles in compaſs, riſing out of the ſea like a pyramid, and almoſt round. But though ſo ſmall and inconveniently laid out by nature, the induſtry of the Dutch have made it to turn to very good account; and it is ſaid to contain five thouſand whites, and fifteen thouſand negroes. The ſides of the mountains are laid out in very pretty ſettlements, but they have neither ſprings nor rivers. They raiſe here ſugar and tobacco; and this iſland, as well as Curaſſou, is engaged in the Spaniſh contraband trade, for which, however, it is not ſo well ſituated; and it has drawn the ſame advantage from its conſtant neutrality. But when hoſtilities were commenced by Great-Britain againſt Holland, Admiral Rodney was ſent with a conſiderable land and ſea force againſt St. Euſtatius, which, being incapable of any defence, ſurrendered at diſcretion, on 3d of February, 1781. The private property of the inhabitants was confiſcated, with a degree of rigour very uncommon among civilized nations, and very inconſiſtent with the humanity and generoſity by which the Engliſh nation uſed to be characteriſed. The reaſon aſſigned was, that the inhabitants of St. Euſtatius had aſſiſted the United States with naval and other ſtores. But on the 27th of November, the ſame year, St. Euſtatius was retaken by the French, under the command of the Marquis de Bouille, though their force conſiſted of only three frigates, ſome ſmall craft, and about three hundred men.

CURASSOU.

This iſland is ſituated in twelve degrees north latitude, nine or ten leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is thirty miles long, and ten broad. It ſeems as if it were fated, that the ingenuity and patience of the Hollanders ſhould every where, both in Europe and America, be employed in fighting againſt an unfriendly nature; for the iſland is not only barren, and dependent on the rains for its water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worſt in America; yet the Dutch have entirely remedied that defect; they have upon this harbour one of the largeſt and by far the moſt elegant and cleanly towns in the Weſt-Indies. The public buildings are numerous and handſome; the private houſes commodious; and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. All kind of labour is here performed by engines; ſome of them ſo well contrived, that ſhips are at once lifted into the dock.

Though this iſland is naturally barren, the induſtry of the Dutch has brought it to produce a conſiderable quantity both of tobacco and ſugar; it has, beſides, good ſalt works, for the produce of which there is a briſk demand from the Engliſh iſlands, and the colonies on the continent. But what renders this iſland of moſt advantage to the Dutch, is the contraband trade which is carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, and their harbour being the rendezvous to all nations in time of war.

The Dutch ſhips from Europe touch at this iſland for intelligence, or pilots, and then proceed to the Spaniſh coaſts for trade, which they force with a ſtrong hand, it being very difficult for the Spaniſh guarda coſtas to take theſe veſſels; for they are not only ſtout ſhips, with a number of guns, but are manned with large crews of choſen ſeamen, deeply intereſted in the ſafety of the veſſel and the ſucceſs of the voyage. They have each a ſhare in the cargo, of a value proportioned to the ſtation of the owner, ſupplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime coſt. This animates them with an uncommon courage, and they fight bravely, becauſe every man fights in defence of his own property. Beſides this, there is a conſtant intercourſe between this iſland and the Spaniſh continent.

Curaſſou has numerous warehouſes, always full of the commodities of Europe and the Eaſt-Indies. Here are all ſorts of woollen and linen cloth, laces, ſilks, ribands, iron utenſils, naval and military ſtores, brandy, the ſpices of the Moluccas, and the calicoes of In-

dia, white and painted. Hither the Dutch Weſt-India, which is alſo their African Company, annually bring three or four cargoes of ſlaves; and to this mart the Spaniards themſelves come in ſmall veſſels, and carry off not only the beſt of the negroes, at a very high price, but great quantities of all the above ſorts of goods; and the ſeller has this advantage, that the refuſe of warehouſes and mercers' ſhops, and every thing that is grown unfaſhionable and unſaleable in Europe, go off here extremely well; every thing being ſufficiently recommended by its being European. The Spaniards pay in gold and ſilver, coined or in bars, cacoa, vanilla, jeſuits bark, cochineal, and other valuable commodities.

The trade of Curaſſou, even in times of peace, is ſaid to be annually worth to the Dutch no leſs than five hundred thouſand pounds; but in time of war the profit is ſtill greater, for then it becomes the common emporium of the Weſt-Indies; it affords a retreat to ſhips of all nations, and at the ſame time refuſes none of them arms and ammunition to deſtroy one another. The intercourſe with Spain being then interrupted, the Spaniſh colonies have ſcarcely any other market from whence they can be well ſupplied either with ſlaves or goods. The French come hither to buy the beef, pork, corn, flour, and lumber, which are brought from the continent of North-America, or exported from Ireland, ſo that whether in peace or in war, the trade of this iſland flouriſhes extremely.

The trade of all the Dutch American ſettlements was originally carried on by the Weſt-India Company alone; at preſent, ſuch ſhips as go upon that trade, pay two and a half per cent. for their licenſes; the company, however, reſerve to themſelves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American iſlands.

The other iſlands, Bonaire and Aruba, are inconſiderable in themſelves, and ſhould be regarded as appendages to Curaſſou, for which they are chiefly employed in raiſing cattle and other proviſions.

The iſland of Saba, ſituated at no great diſtance from St. Euſtatius, is ſmall and hardly deſerves to be mentioned.

DANISH WEST-INDIES.

St. THOMAS.

AN inconſiderable member of the Caribbees, ſituated in ſixty-four degrees weſt longitude, and eighteen degrees north latitude, about fifteen miles in circumference, and has a ſafe and commodious harbour.

St. CROIX, or SANTA CRUZ.

Another ſmall and unhealthy iſland, lying about five leagues eaſt of St. Thomas, ten or twelve leagues in length, and three or four where it is broadeſt. Theſe iſlands, ſo long as they remained in the hands of the Daniſh Weſt-India Company, were ill managed, and of little conſequence to the Danes; but that wiſe and benevolent prince, the late king of Denmark, bought up the company's ſtock, and laid the trade open; and ſince that time the iſland of St. Thomas, as well as this, has been ſo greatly improved, that it is ſaid to produce upwards of three thouſand hogſheads of ſugar, of one thouſand weight each, and other of the Weſt-India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war, privateers bring in their prizes here for ſale; and a great many veſſels trade from hence along the Spaniſh main, and return with money in ſpecie or bars, and valuable merchandiſe. As for Santa Cruz, from a perfect deſert a few years ſince, it is beginning to ſettle faſt; ſeveral perſons from the Engliſh iſlands, ſome of them of great wealth, have gone to ſettle there, and have received very great encouragement to do ſo.

The

The Dutch and the Danes hardly deſerve to be mentioned among the proprietors of America; their poſſeſſions there are comparatively nothing. But notwithſtanding they appear extremely worthy of the attention of theſe powers, as the ſhare of the Dutch only is worth to them at leaſt ſix hundred thouſand pounds a year.

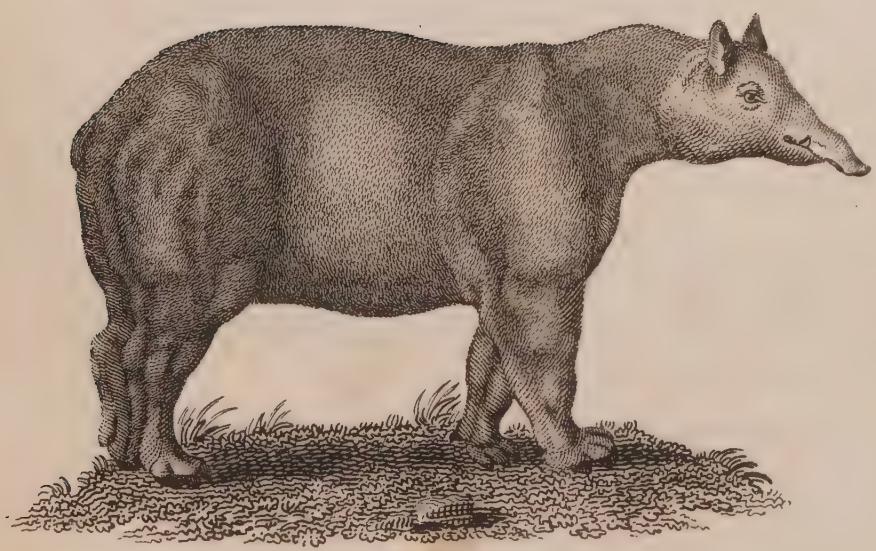
HISTORY OF AMERICAN QUADRUPEDS.

IN a former part of this work * we have had occaſion to offer ſome obſervations on the animals of America; by that account, for which we are indebted to the Abbé Clavigero, M. Buffon, and the ingenious Mr. Jefferſon, it appears, that the continent of America contains nearly one-half of the known ſpecies of quadrupeds, ſome of them common to North-America, and to the European and Aſiatic parts of the eaſtern continent, and others peculiar to America: of theſe the greater part have not been accurately examined: it however appears, that thoſe common to both continents are ſuch as may be ſuppoſed to have migrated from one to the other. Comparing individuals of the ſame ſpecies inhabiting the different continents, ſome are found perfectly ſimilar; between others there is often found ſome trivial difference in ſize, colour, or other circumſtances; in ſome inſtances the European animal is larger than the American, in others the reverſe is true. A ſimilar variety is often found among the ſame ſpecies in different parts of the ſame continent; this evidently ariſes from the temperature of the climate, quantity of food furniſhed in the parts they inhabit, and the degree of ſafety and quiet poſſeſſed; the latter effect is evident on thoſe animals hunted for their fleſh or fur, ſuch as the mooſe deer, beaver, &c. which have gradually diminiſhed in their ſize wherever they have thus been diſturbed; but as we have neither a complete deſcription nor complete catalogue extant, we are not warranted in making many obſervations. It is very probable, that many of the American quadrupeds are ſtill utterly unknown, and others known only by common report from hunters and others, and the information, therefore, to be received with caution; from this latter cauſe has ſprung that multiplication and miſapplication of names, which has produced numberleſs contradictions in the different writers on

* Page 124, &c. of vol. i.

this

LLAMA.



TAPIIR.

this ſubject. Our account will be little more than a catalogue, with a few remarks on thoſe in particular which conſtitute that important branch of commerce, the fur trade, or are in other reſpects peculiarly uſeful or curious.

The Lama.—The lama is the camel of Peru and Chili; and, before the conqueſt of thoſe countries by the Spaniards, was the only beaſt of burden known to the Indians; its diſpoſition is mild, gentle, and tractable.

Before the introduction of mules, theſe animals were uſed by the natives to plough the land, and now ſerve to carry burdens. They march ſlowly, and ſeldom accompliſh journies of more than four or five leagues a day; but what they want in ſpeed is made up by perſeverance and induſtry. They travel long journies in countries impaſſable to moſt other animals, are very ſure-footed, and are much employed in tranſporting the rich ores, dug out of the mines of Potoſi, over the rugged hills and narrow paths of the Andes. They lie down to be loaded, and, when weary, no blows can excite them to quicken their pace. They neither defend themſelves with their feet nor their teeth; when angry, they have no other method of revenging injuries but by ſpitting; they can throw out their ſaliva to the diſtance of ten paces; and if it fall on the ſkin, it raiſes an itching, accompanied with a ſlight inflammation. Their fleſh is eaten, and ſaid to be as good as mutton; and of the hair of the wild ſort the Indians make cloth.

Like the camel, they have the faculty of abſtaining long from water, and, like that animal, their food is coarſe and trifling; they are neither allowed corn nor hay, green herbage, of which they eat very moderately, being ſufficient for their nouriſhment.

The wild lamas, called guanacos, are ſtronger and more active than the domeſtic kind; they live in herds, and inhabit the higheſt regions of the Cordelieres, and they run with great ſwiftneſs in places of difficult acceſs, where dogs cannot eaſily follow them.

The lama reſembles the camel in the form of its body, but is without the dorſal hunch; its head is ſmall and well ſhaped, its neck long, and very protuberant near its junction with the body; in its domeſtic ſtate its hair is ſhort and ſmooth, when wild it is coarſe and long, of a yellowiſh colour; a black line runs along the top of the back, from the head to the tail. The tames ones vary in colour; ſome of them are white, others black, others of a mixed colour—white, grey and ruſſet, diſperſed in ſpots: its tail is ſhort, its

ears

ears are four inches long, its feet are cloven like thoſe of the ox, and are armed behind with a ſpur, by which the animal is enabled to ſupport itſelf on rugged and difficult ground. The height of the lama is about four feet, and its length, from the neck to the tail, ſix feet.

Tapiir.—The tapiir is the hippopotamus of the new world, and has by ſome authors been miſtaken for that animal; it inhabits the woods and rivers on the eaſtern ſide of South-America, from the iſthmus of Darien to the river of the Amazons. It is a ſolitary animal, ſleeps during the day, and goes out in the night in ſearch of food; lives on graſs, ſugar-canes and fruits. If diſturbed it takes to the water, ſwims with great eaſe, or plunges to the bottom, and, like the hippopotamus, walks there as on dry ground.

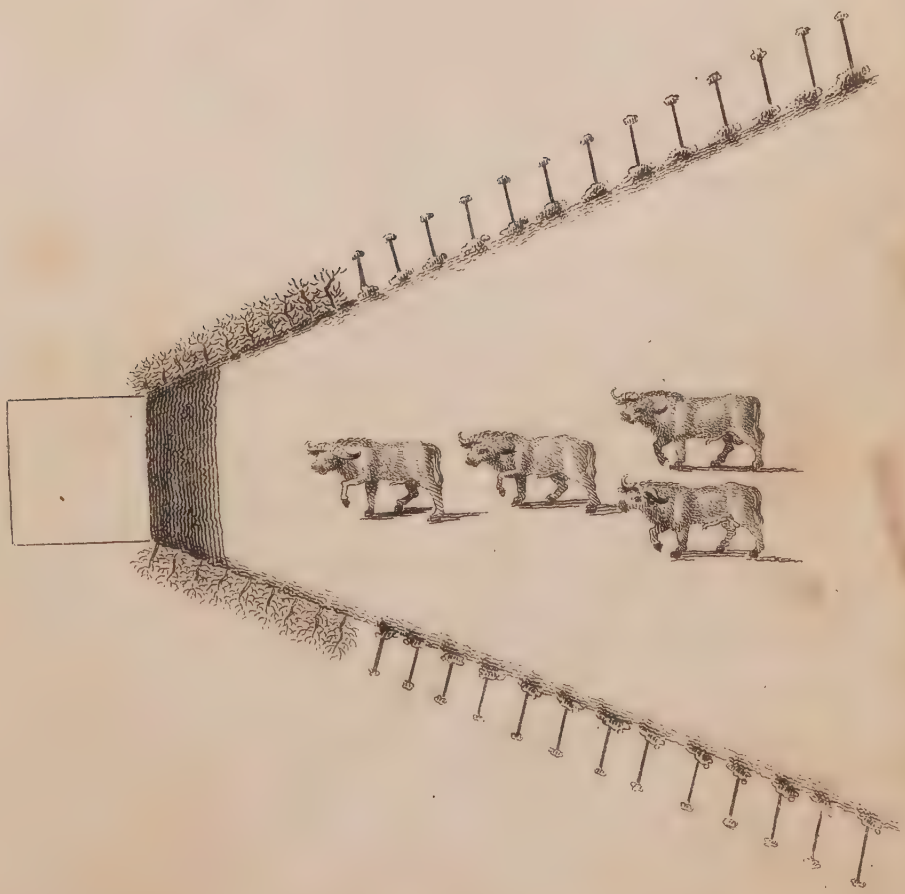
It is about the ſize of a ſmall cow, its noſe is long and ſlender, and extends far beyond the lower jaw, forming a kind of proboſcis, which it can contract or extend at pleaſure; each jaw is furniſhed with ten cutting teeth, and as many grinders; its ears are ſmall and erect; its body formed like that of a hog; its back arched; legs ſhort; and hoofs, of which it has four upon each foot, ſmall, black and hollow; its tail is very ſmall; its hair ſhort, and of a duſky brown colour. It is mild and inoffenſive, avoids all hoſtilities with other animals, and flies from every appearance of danger. Its ſkin, of which the Indians make bucklers, is very thick; and when dried, is ſo hard as to reſiſt the impreſſion of an arrow. The natives eat its fleſh, which is ſaid to be very good.

ANIMALS OF THE OX KIND.

Of this genus, different writers have given an account of three diſtinct ſpecies in America beſides the common domeſticated animal, viz. the BUFFALO, the MUSK, and the BISON, though it is doubtful whether the former of theſe is any other than the biſon, and whether the variation between the neat cattle and the biſon is any thing more than the effect of domeſtication; we ſhall, however, deſcribe each of them.

Buffalo.---Though there is the moſt ſtriking reſemblance between this animal and the common ox, both in regard to form and nature, their habits and propenſities being nearly ſimilar, are both equally ſubmiſſive to the yoke, and may be employed in the ſame domeſtic ſervices; yet it is certain, from experience, that no two animals can, in reality, be more diſtinct: the cow refuſes to breed with the buffalo,

BUFFALO.



BUFFALO TRAP.

while it is known to propagate with the biſon, to which it bears, in point of form, a much more diſtant ſimilitude.

Mr. Umphreville, who ſtates this animal to be a native of Hudſon's bay, gives the following account of the manner in which the Indians take it: "The Indians have various ways of killing the buffalo; one of which is by cautiouſly approaching them when feeding. The hunter, upon this occaſion, lies on his belly, and will ſometimes fire his gun forty or fifty times without raiſing the herd. They alſo purſue them on horſeback, and ſhoot them with arrows and guns. But the means by which the greateſt numbers are taken is by making a pound, which is conſtructed in the following manner:—"They are either of a circular or ſquare form, and differ according to the manner of the nation by whom they are made. The ſquare ones are compoſed of trees laid on one another, to the height of about five feet, and about fifty on each ſide of the ſquare. On that ſide at which the animals are intended to enter a quantity of earth is laid, to the height of the conſtruction, ſo as to form a hill of an eaſy aſcent of about twenty feet. This done, a number of branches of trees are placed, from each ſide of the front, in a ſtrait line from the raiſed hill, for about one hundred feet in length, continually increaſing in width, ſo that though the inward ends of theſe lines of branches are no more than fifty feet aſunder, the exterior end will exceed two hundred feet. After this, a number of poles, nearly fifteen feet long each, are placed at about twelve feet diſtance from each other, with a piece of buffalo dung on the top, and in a ſtrait line from the boughs above mentioned. At the foot of each pole a man lies concealed in a buffalo ſkin, to keep the animals in a ſtrait direction to the pound. Theſe poles are placed alike on each ſide, always increaſing in breadth from one ſide to the other, and decreaſing in the ſame proportion as the animals approach the pound. Every preparation being now made, three or four men ſet off on foot to find a herd of cows, for the bulls they think not worth their trouble: theſe they drive eaſily along, till they arrive within the vicinity of the pound, when one man is diſpatched to give notice to the other Indians, who immediately aſſemble on horſeback on each ſide the herd, keeping a proper diſtance, for fear of frightening the animals. By this means they are conducted within the exterior line of poles. It frequently happens that they will endeavour to go out; to prevent which, the men who are placed at the foot of each pole ſhake their ſkins, which drives the herd to the oppoſite ſide, where the

others do the ſame; ſo that at laſt they arrive at the pound, and fall in headlong one upon another, ſome breaking their necks, backs, &c. And now the confuſion becomes ſo great within, that though the height of the building ſhall not exceed five feet, none will make their eſcape. To elucidate this deſcription of the buffalo pound, we have annexed a repreſentation.

Muſk.—The muſk bull inhabits the interior parts of North-America, on the weſt ſide of Hudſon's bay, between Churchill and Seal rivers. They are very numerous in thoſe parts, and live in herds of twenty or thirty. The Indians eat their fleſh, and make coverings of their ſkins. They are brought down in ſledges to ſupply the forts during the winter. Notwithſtanding the fleſh is ſaid to have a ſtrong flavour of muſk, it is reckoned very good and wholeſome.

It is ſomewhat lower than a deer, but more bulky; its legs are ſhort, and it has a ſmall hump on its ſhoulder; its hair is of a duſty red colour, very fine, and ſo long as to reach to the ground: beneath the hair its body is covered with wool of an aſh colour, which is exquiſitely fine, and might be converted into various articles of uſeful manufacture—Mr. Jeremie ſays, that ſtockings made of it are finer than ſilk; its tail is only three inches long, and is covered with long hairs, of which the Eſquimaux Indians make caps, which are ſo contrived, that the long hair, falling round their faces, defends them from the bites of the muſquitoes. Its horns are cloſe at the baſe, and bend downwards, turning out at the points; they are two feet long, and two feet round at the baſe; ſome of them will weigh ſixty pounds.

Theſe animals delight chiefly in rocky and mountainous countries; they run nimbly, and are very active in climbing ſteep aſcents.

Biſon.—This animal, often called, though improperly, the buffalo, is by ſome ſuppoſed to be the ſame ſpecies as the common domeſticated animal. Compared with the neat cattle, however, the biſon is conſiderably larger, eſpecially about the fore parts of his body. On his ſhoulders ariſes a large fleſhy or griſly ſubſtance, which extends along the back. The hair on his head, neck and ſhoulders, is long and woolly, and all of it is fit to be ſpun or wrought into hats. Calves from the domeſtic cow and wild bull are ſometimes raiſed; but when they grow up, they become ſo wild that no common fence will confine them.

Theſe animals were once exceedingly numerous in the weſtern parts of Virginia and Pennſylvania; and ſo late as the year 1766, herds

AMERICAN ELK.

BISON.

herds of four hundred were frequently ſeen in Kentucky, and from thence to the Miſſiſſippi: they are likewiſe common in ſome parts of Hudſon's bay.

ANIMALS OF THE DEER KIND.

Of this genus the American foreſts abound with almoſt all the varieties known, and in the greateſt plenty; to elucidate this fact, we have only to conſider the vaſt quantities of their ſkins annually imported into Europe: it will, however, be unneceſſary to deſcribe the varieties of the different ſpecies; we ſhall, therefore, only notice a few of the moſt particular.

Great Stag, or round horned Elk.—Of this animal there never has yet been a good deſcription; the figure we have given of it in the preceding plate is from a repreſentation profeſſed to be taken from a living one brought from the interior of North-America: it appears to have been drawn at the time it had ſhed its horns, and at about five years old; it is however aſſerted, that it does not attain its full growth under twenty years. The deſcription given of the above is as follows:

At the age of five years, the length of this creature was nine feet, from the end of the muzzle to the inſertion of the tail, the head and neck being extended in a line with the body; its height at the ſhoulder was four feet ſix inches; length of the head one foot ſix inches; breadth over the forehead ſeven inches; length of the fore legs two feet five inches; length of the neck two feet ſix; its ears nine inches; and tail three. Its horns, which it had juſt ſhed, are not palmated like thoſe of the mooſe; they are large, and, when full grown, meaſure above ſix feet from tip to tip. The antlers are round and pointed at the ends, the lowermoſt antler forms a curve downward over each eye, to which it appears a defence. Its hair was long, of a dark dun colour on the back and ſides; on the head and legs dark brown; its eyes full and lively; and below each eye there is a deep ſlit, about two inches in length, the uſe of which we are unable to diſcover.

It was very lively and active, of great ſtrength of body and limbs; its hoofs ſhort, and like thoſe of a calf; the diviſion between them is leſs than in thoſe of the rein-deer, and, when the animal is in motion, they do not make a rattling noiſe: it has no mane, but the hair under its neck is longer than that on any other part of the body."

Mooſe.—Of theſe there are two kinds, the black and the grey. The black are ſaid to have been from eight to twelve feet high; at preſent they are very rarely ſeen. The grey mooſe are generally as tall as a horſe, and ſome are much taller; both have ſpreading palmated horns, weighing from thirty to forty pounds; theſe are ſhed annually, in the month of February. They never run, but trot with amazing ſpeed. In ſummer they feed on wild graſſes, and the leaves of the moſt mucilaginous ſhrubs. In winter they form herds; and when the ſnow falls, by moving conſtantly in a ſmall circle, they tread the ſnow hard, and form what is called a pen. While the ſnow is deep, and will not bear them, they are confined within this pen, and eat all the bark and twigs within their reach. They are conſidered as of the ſame ſpecies with the elk of the eaſtern continent. They are found in New-England, Canada, Hudſon's bay, Nova-Scotia, and on the northern parts of the Ohio.

Caribou, or Rein Deer.—This animal is diſtinguiſhed by its branching palmated horns, with brow antlers. From the tendons of this animal, as well as of the mooſe, the aboriginal natives made very tolerable thread. It is found in the diſtrict of Maine, and in the neighbourhood of Hudſon's bay, where they are in great herds. Columns of many thouſands annually paſs from north to ſouth in the months of March and April. In that ſeaſon the muſquitoes are very troubleſome, and oblige them to quit the woods, and ſeek refreſhment on the ſhore and open country. Great numbers of beaſts of prey follow the herds. The wolves ſingle out the ſtragglers, detach them from the flock, and hunt them down: the foxes attend at a diſtance, to pick up the offals left by the former. In autumn the deer, with the fawns bred during the ſummer, remigrate northward.

Stag, or Red Deer.—This is the moſt beautiful animal of the deer kind. The elegance of his form, the lightneſs of his motions, the flexibility of his limbs, his bold, branching horns, which are annually renewed, his grandeur, ſtrength and ſwiftneſs, give him a decided pre-eminence over every other inhabitant of the foreſt.

The age of the ſtag is known by its horns: the firſt year exhibits only a ſhort protuberance, which is covered with a hairy ſkin; the next year the horns are ſtraight and ſingle; the third year produces two antlers, the fourth three, the fifth four; and, when arrived at the ſixth year, the antlers amount to ſix or ſeven on each ſide, but the number is not always certain.

Of this ſpecies America furniſhes ſeveral varieties, one of which, found on the borders of the Ohio river, is very large, and commonly conſidered as a ſpecies of the elk.

Fallow Deer.—The principal difference between the ſtag and the fallow deer ſeems to be in their ſize and in the form of their horns, the latter being much ſmaller than the former, and its horns, inſtead of being round, like thoſe of the ſtag, are broad, palmated at the ends, and better garniſhed with antlers: the tail is alſo much longer than that of the ſtag, and its hair is brighter; in other reſpects they nearly reſemble each other.

The horns of the fallow deer are ſhed annually, like thoſe of the ſtag, but they fall off later, and are renewed nearly at the ſame time.

They aſſociate in herds, which ſometimes divide into two parties, and maintain obſtinate battles for the poſſeſſion of ſome favourite part of the park: each party has its leader, which is always the oldeſt and ſtrongeſt of the flock: they attack in regular order of battle; they fight with courage, and mutually ſupport each other; they retire, they rally, and ſeldom give up after one defeat: the combat is frequently renewed for ſeveral days together; till, after ſeveral defeats, the weaker party is obliged to give way, and leave the conquerors in poſſeſſion of the object of their contention.

In the United States theſe animals are larger than in Europe, of a different colour, and ſuppoſed by ſome to be a different ſpecies: they are found in plenty from Canada over all parts of North-America to Mexico.

Roe.—The roe is the ſmalleſt of all the deer kind, being only three feet four inches long, and ſomewhat more than two feet in height: the horns are from eight to nine inches long, upright, round, and divided into three branches: the body is covered with long hair; the lower part of each hair is aſh colour, near the end is a narrow bar of black, and the point is yellow; the hairs on the face are black, tipped with aſh colour; the ears are long, their inſides of a pale yellow, and covered with long hair; the cheſt, belly, legs, and inſide of the thighs, are of a yellowiſh white; the rump is of a pure white, and the tail very ſhort.

The form of the roebuck is elegant, and its motions light and eaſy. It bounds ſeemingly without effort, and runs with great ſwiftneſs. When hunted, it endeavours to elude its purſuers by the moſt ſubtle artifices; it repeatedly returns upon its former ſteps, till, by various windings, it has entirely confounded the ſcent. The cun-

ning animal then, by a ſudden ſpring, bounds to one ſide; and, lying cloſe down upon its belly, permits the hounds to paſs by, without offering to ſtir.

They do not keep together in herds, like other deer, but live in ſeparate families: the ſire, the dam, and the young ones, aſſociate together, and ſeldom mix with others.

In America the roe deer is more common than in Europe, and in Louiſiana it is much larger.

The deſcription of the two following animals are taken from Umphreville's Hiſtory of Hudſon's Bay, and are given in his own words:

"*Jumping Deer.*---This animal, though not half the ſize of the red deer, is not the ſmalleſt of the ſpecies. The one under deſcription receives its name from the ſingular manner of its courſe; this is by a continual ſucceſſion of jumps, which they perform with amazing celerity, ſpringing at the diſtance of fifteen or ſixteen feet at a jump. It is a ſmall, clean-made animal, exceeding lively and gay, and is of a brown colour intermixed with grey hairs; its food conſiſts of graſs, of the fallen leaves of the poplar, the young branches of different kinds of trees, and the moſs adhering to the pines. The horns are about two feet long, and reſemble thoſe of the red deer, except in ſize; they fall off in the month of April. This handſome animal ruts in November, brings forth in May, and has one and ſometimes two at a birth. It is needleſs to add that the fleſh is delicious. There are two other kinds of the jumping deer, one of which has a very ſhort tail like the reſt of the ſpecies, whereas the other kind has a tail about a foot long, and covered with red hairs.

"*Apis-to-chik-o-ſhiſh.*---I am not ſufficiently converſant in the ſcience of zoology to give this beautiful animal its proper name in the Engliſh language; perhaps it has never yet been deſcribed in natural hiſtory. The French people reſident in theſe parts call it the *Cu Blanc*, from a white mark on its rump. A more beautiful creature is not to be found in this or perhaps any other country; extreme delicacy of make, and exact ſimilarity of proportion, are obſervable in all its parts; no animal here is ſo ſwift of foot, not the fleeteſt horſe or dog can approach it. They herd together in large droves, but ſometimes three or four only are found in a place. Its horns are not oſſified like the other ſpecies, nor are they branched; both male and female have them, but they never fall off; they reſemble more the horns of the goat than thoſe of the deer ſpecies. They feed

upon

upon moſt kinds of graſs, and the tender twigs of trees. The whole length may be about four feet and a half; the legs are white and ſlender; the reſt of the body a light red, with a white ſpace on the rump."

ANIMALS OF THE BEAR KIND.

Brown Bear.—There are two principal varieties of the bear, the brown and the black; the former is found in almoſt every climate, the black bear, chiefly in the foreſts of the northern regions of Europe and America.

The brown bear is ſometimes carnivorous, but its general food is roots, fruits, and vegetables.

It is a ſavage and ſolitary animal, lives in deſert and unfrequented places, and chuſes its den in the moſt gloomy and retired parts of the foreſt, or in the moſt dangerous and inacceſſible precipices of unfrequented mountains. In America it is chiefly found to the northweſt of Hudſon's bay, and the weſtern ſide of the continent. It is likewiſe found about Nootka ſound, and the Andes of Peru. It retires alone to its den about the end of autumn, at which time it is exceedingly fat, and lives for ſeveral weeks in a ſtate of total inactivity and abſtinence from food. During this time the female brings forth her young and ſuckles them; ſhe chuſes her retreat for that purpoſe in the moſt retired places, apart from the male, leſt he ſhould devour them; ſhe makes a warm bed for her young, and attends them with unremitting care during four months, and in all that time ſcarcely allows herſelf any nouriſhment. She brings forth two, and ſometimes three young at a time. The cubs are round and ſhapeleſs, with pointed muzzles: at firſt they do not exceed eight inches in length; they are blind during the firſt four weeks, are of a pale yellow colour, and have ſcarcely any reſemblance of the creature when arrived at maturity. The time of geſtation in theſe animals is about ſix months, and they bring forth in the beginning of January.

In the ſpring, the old bears, attended by their young, come out from their retreats, lean, and almoſt famiſhed by their long confinement. They then ranſack every quarter in ſearch of food; they frequently climb trees, and devour the fruit in great quantities, particularly the date plum tree, of which they are exceedingly fond; they aſcend theſe trees with ſurpriſing agility, keep themſelves firm on the branches with one paw, and with the other collect the fruit.

The

The bear is remarkably fond of honey, which it will encounter great difficulties to obtain, and ſeeks for with great cunning and avidity.

It enjoys in a ſuperior degree the ſenſes of hearing, ſmelling, and touching. Its ears are ſhort and rounded, and its eyes ſmall, but lively and penetrating, and defended by a nictating membrane: from the peculiar formation of the internal parts of its noſe, its ſenſe of ſmelling is exceedingly exquiſite; the legs and thighs are ſtrong and muſcular; it has five toes on each foot, and uſes its fore feet as a hand, although the toes are not ſeparated as in moſt animals that do ſo; the largeſt finger is on the outſide.

The voice of the bear is a deep and ſurly kind of growl, which it frequently exerts without the leaſt cauſe. It is very eaſily irritated, and at that time its reſentment is furious, and often capriciouſly exerted.

When tamed, it appears mild and obedient to its maſter, but it is not to be truſted without the utmoſt caution. It may be taught to walk upright, to dance, to lay hold of a poll with its paws, and perform various tricks. But to give the bear this kind of education, it muſt be taken when young, and accuſtomed early to reſtraint and diſcipline: an old bear will ſuffer neither without diſcovering the moſt furious reſentment; neither the voice nor the menaces of his keeper have any effect upon him; he equally growls at the hand that is held out to feed, as at that which is raiſed to correct him.

Black Bear.—Of this animal there are two ſorts found in the northern States; both are black, but different in their forms and habits. One has ſhort legs, a thick, clumſy body, is generally fat, and is very fond of ſweet vegetable food, ſuch as ſweet apples, Indian corn in the milk, berries, grapes, honey, &c. Probably he is not carnivorous. As ſoon as the firſt ſnow falls, he betakes himſelf to his den, which is a hole in a cleft of rocks, a hollow tree, or ſome ſuch place; here he gradually becomes torpid, and dozes away the winter, ſucking his paws, and expending the ſtock of fat which he had previouſly acquired.

The other ſort is diſtinguiſhed by the name of the Ranging bear, and ſeems to be a grade between the preceding and the wolf. His legs are longer, and his body more lean and gaunt. He is carnivorous, frequently deſtroying calves, ſheep, and pigs, and ſometimes children. In winter he migrates to the ſouthward. The former appears

WOLVERENE

BEAVER

OTTER

RACCOON

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pears to be the common black bear of Europe; the latter corresponds to the brown bear of the Alps, and is found in all parts of America.

Polar, or Great White Bear.—This animal differs greatly from the common bear in the length of its head and neck, and grows to above twice the size. Some of them are thirteen feet long; its limbs are of great size and strength; its hair long, harsh, and disagreeable to the touch, and of a yellowish white colour; its ears are short and rounded, and its teeth large.

It inhabits only the coldest parts of the globe, and has been found above latitude eighty, as far as navigators have penetrated northwards. These inhospitable regions seem adapted to its sullen nature.

It has been seldom seen farther south than Newfoundland, but abounds chiefly on the shores of Hudson's bay, Greenland, and Spitzbergen, on one side, and those of Nova Zembla on the other. It has been sometimes found in the intermediate countries of Norway and Iceland; but such as have appeared in those parts have always been driven thither upon floating sheets of ice, so that those countries are only acquainted with them by accident.

Wolverene—called in Canada the *Carcajou*, and by hunters, the *Beaver Eater*, seems to be a grade between the bear and the woodchuck. He agrees nearly with the badger of Europe. His length is one foot and a half and upwards; his circumference nearly two feet; his head and ears resemble a woodchuck's; his legs short; feet and paws large and strong; tail about seven inches long, black, and very bushy or shaggy; hair about two inches long, and very coarse; his head sallow grey; back, almost black; breast, spotted with white; belly, dark brown; sides and rump, light reddish brown. This animal lives in holes, cannot run fast, and has a clumsy appearance. He is very mischievous to hunters, following them when setting their traps, destroying their game, particularly the beaver; found as far north as the Copper river; and south, as the country between lake Hudson and lake Superior; and on the western side of North-America, in Canada, and the northern States they are very numerous.

Raccoon—This animal is found in all the temperate parts of North-America. It is found also in the mountains of Jamaica, from whence great numbers of them frequently descend into the plantations, and make great havoc among the sugar canes, of which they are particularly fond. The planters consider these animals as their greatest enemies, as they frequently do infinite mischief in one night's excursion: they have contrived various methods of destroying them, yet still

they

they propagate in ſuch numbers, that neither traps nor fire arms can repel them.

The raccoon is ſomewhat leſs than the badger: its head reſembles that of a fox, but its ears are round and much ſhorter, and its upper jaw very pointed, and longer than the lower: its eyes, which are large, are ſurrounded with two broad patches of black; its body is thick and ſhort, covered with long hair, black at the points, and grey underneath; its tail is long and buſhy, and marked with alternate rings of black and white; its feet and toes are black.

The raccoon is very active and nimble: its claws, which are extremely ſharp, enable it to climb trees with great facility. It moves forward chiefly by bounding, and though it proceeds in an oblique direction, runs very ſwiftly.

ANIMALS OF THE DOG KIND.

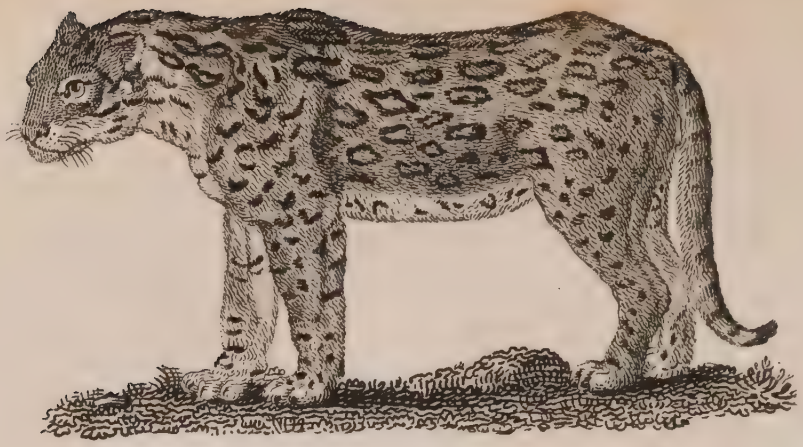
Wolf.—Of this animal, which is of the dog kind, or rather the dog himſelf in his ſavage ſtate, there are in America great numbers, and a conſiderable variety in ſize and colour. The dimenſions of a ſkin, meaſured for writing this account, were as follows: length of the body five feet; the fore legs eighteen inches; of the hind legs fifteen inches; of the tail eighteen inches. The circumference of the body was from two feet and a half to three feet. The colour of theſe animals in the northern States is generally a light dirty ſallow, with a liſt of black along their back. In ſome, the black is extended down their ſides, and ſometimes forms waving ſtreaks; others are ſaid to be ſpotted: ſome of them, particularly in the ſouthern States, are entirely black, and conſiderably ſmaller. The Indians are ſaid to have ſo far tamed ſome of theſe animals before their acquaintance with the Europeans, as to have uſed them in hunting. They next made uſe of European dogs, and afterwards of mongrels, the offſpring of the wolf and dog, as being more docile than the former, and more eager in the chaſe than the latter. The appearance of many of the dogs, in the newly-ſettled parts of the United States, indicate their relation to the wolf. They are found from Hudſon's bay to the moſt ſouthern parts of North-America, and in moſt of the ſouthern States they are numerous.

Fox.—Of the foxes, there are in America a great variety; ſuch as the Silver Fox,* Red Fox, Grey Fox, Croſs Fox, Brant Fox, and

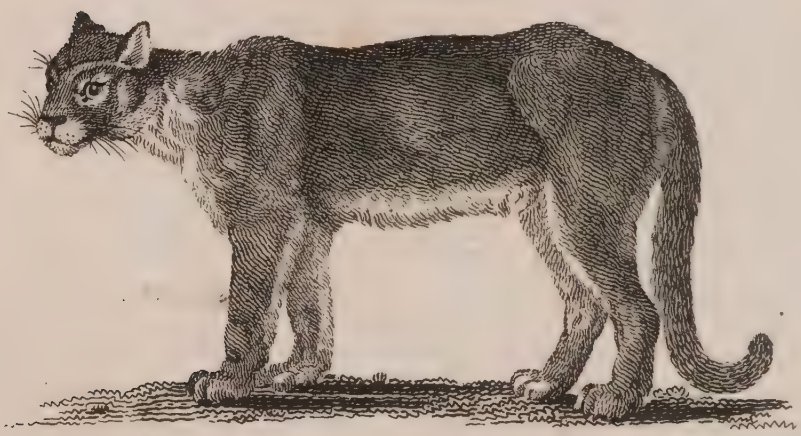
* M. Buffon is of opinion that this is the Iſatis, or Arctic dog.

ſeveral

JAGUAR.

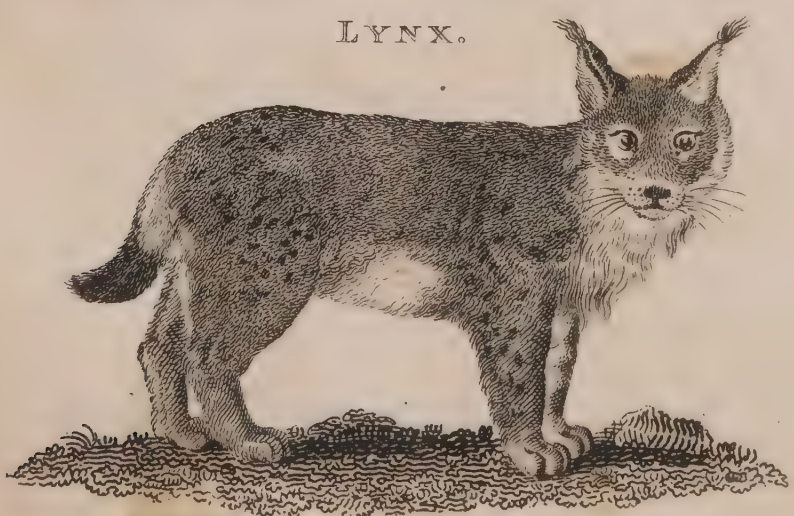


COUGUAR.



OCELOT.

LYNX.



ſeveral others. Naturaliſts have generally ſuppoſed that there is more than one ſpecies of foxes, but they differ very much in their mode of arranging them. It is highly probable, however, that there is but one ſpecies of theſe animals, as they are found in all their varieties of ſize, and of ſhades variouſly intermixed, in different parts of the United States. Foxes and other animals furniſhed with fur, in the northern parts, are larger than thoſe of the ſouthern.

ANIMALS OF THE CAT KIND.

Catamount.---This animal, the moſt dreaded by hunters of any of the inhabitants of the foreſts, is rarely ſeen, which is probably the reaſon why no account of him has ever been publiſhed, to our knowledge, except what is contained in a letter of Mr. Colinſon's to M. de Buffon. The dimenſions of one, killed a few years ago, in New-Hampſhire, as nearly as could be aſcertained by the ſkin, were as follows: the length of his body, including the head, ſix feet; circumference of his body two feet and a half; length of his tail three feet, and of his legs about one foot. The colour, along his back, is nearly black; on his ſides, a dark reddiſh brown; his feet black. He ſeems not calculated for running, but leaps with ſurpriſing agility. His favourite food is blood, which, like other animals of the cat kind, he takes from the jugular veſſels of cattle, deer, &c. leaving the carcaſe. Smaller prey he takes to his den; and he has been known to carry off a child. He ſeems to be allured by fire, which terrifies all other carnivorous animals, and betrays no fear of either man or beaſt. He is found in the northern and middle States, and moſt probably in Hudſon's bay.

Jaguar.—The Jaguar is the moſt formidable animal of the new continent, rather larger than the panther, with hair of a bright tawny colour. The top of the back is marked with long ſtripes of black, the ſides beautifully variegated with irregular oblong ſpots, open in the middle; the tail not ſo long as that of the ounce, and irregularly marked with large black ſpots.

It is found in the hotteſt parts of South-America, is very fierce, and when preſſed with hunger, will ſometimes venture to ſeize a man.

The Indians are much afraid of it, and think it prefers them to the white inhabitants, who, perhaps, are better prepared to repel its attacks. In travelling through the deſerts of Guiana, they light great fires in the night, of which theſe animals are much afraid.

They howl dreadfully; their cry, which is expreſſive of the two monoſyllables, *hou, hou*, is ſomewhat plaintive, grave, and ſtrong, like that of an ox.

The ant eater, though it has no teeth to defend itſelf with, is the moſt cruel enemy the jaguar has to encounter. As ſoon as the jaguar attacks this little animal, it lies down on its back, and with its long claws ſeizes and ſuffocates him.

Couguar.---This animal is called by ſome the *Puma*, or *American Lion*, but differs ſo much from that noble animal, as not to admit of any compariſon. Its head is ſmall, it has no mane, its length, from noſe to tail, is five feet three inches, the tail two feet. The predominant colour is a lively red, mixed with black, eſpecially on the back, where it is darkeſt: its chin, its throat, and all the inferior parts of the body, are whitiſh: its legs are long, claws white, and the outer claw of the fore feet much longer than the others.

It is found in many parts of North-America, from Canada to Florida: it is alſo common in Guiana, Braſil, and Mexico.

It is fierce and ravenous in the extreme, and will ſwim rivers to attack cattle, even in their incloſures. In North-America, its fury ſeems to be ſubdued by the rigour of the climate, for it will fly from a dog in company with its maſter, and take ſhelter by running up a tree.

It is very deſtructive to domeſtic animals, particularly to hogs. It preys alſo upon the mooſe and other deer; lies lurking upon the branch of a tree till ſome of theſe animals paſs underneath, when it drops down upon one of them, and never quits its hold till it has drunk its blood. It will even attack beaſts of prey.

The Couguar of Pennſylvania---This is another ſpecies of couguar, found in the temperate climates of North-America, as on the mountains of Carolina, Georgia, Pennſylvania, and the adjacent provinces. It differs much from the couguar above deſcribed: his limbs are ſhorter, his body much longer, and his tail is alſo three or four inches longer. But in the colour of the hair, and the form of the head and ears, they have a perfect reſemblance to each other. The couguar of Pennſylvania, ſays Mr. Colinſon, is an animal remarkable for thinneſs and length of body, ſhortneſs of legs, and length of tail. The length of the body, from the muzzle to the anus, is five feet four inches, and that of the tail is two feet ſix inches: the fore legs are one foot long, and the hind legs one foot three inches: the height of the body before is one foot nine inches, and one foot ten

inches

inches behind: the circumference of the thickeſt part of the body is two feet three inches.

Black Couguar.---This animal differs from the firſt we have deſcribed, chiefly in the colour, which is duſky, ſometimes ſpotted with black, but generally plain. The throat, belly, and inſides of the legs, are of a pale aſh colour, the upper lip white, covered with long whiſkers: above each eye it has very long hairs, and at the corner of the mouth a black ſpot: its paws are white, and its ears ſharp and pointed.

It grows to the ſize of a heifer of a year old, and has great ſtrength in its limbs.

It inhabits Braſil and Guiana, is a cruel and fierce animal, much dreaded by the Indians; but fortunately the ſpecies is not numerous.

Ocelot.---The ſkin of the male ocelot is extremely beautiful, and moſt elegantly variegated. Its general colour is that of a bright tawny; a black ſtripe extends along the top of the back from head to tail; its forehead is ſpotted with black, as are alſo its legs; its ſhoulders, ſides, and rump, are beautifully marbled with long ſtripes of black, forming oval figures, filled in the middle with ſmall black ſpots; its tail is irregularly marked with large ſpots, and black at the end. The colours of the female are not ſo vivid as thoſe of the male, neither is it ſo beautifully marked.

The ocelot very much reſembles the common cat in the form of its body, although it is a great deal larger. Buffon makes its height two feet and a half, and about four feet in length.

It is a native of South-America, inhabits Mexico and Braſil, is very voracious, but timid, and ſeldom attacks men; it is afraid of dogs, and when purſued, flies to the woods.

It lives chiefly in the mountains, and conceals itſelf amongſt the leaves of trees, from whence it darts upon ſuch animals as come within its reach. It ſometimes extends itſelf along the boughs, as if it were dead, till the monkies, tempted by their natural curioſity, approach within its reach. It is ſaid to prefer the blood of animals to their fleſh.

Margay.---This is another beautiful animal of the ſpotted tribe, and known in many places by the name of the *Tiger Cat.* The ground colour of the body is tawny; the face is ſtriped with black; the body is marked with ſtripes and large ſpots of black; the breaſt and inſide of the legs are white, ſpotted with black; the tail is long, marked with alternate ſpots of black, tawny, and grey.

The margay is ſmaller than the ocelot, and about the ſize of the wild cat, which it reſembles in diſpoſition and habit, living on ſmall animals, birds, &c.—It is very wild, and cannot eaſily be brought under ſubjection.

Its colours vary, though they are generally ſuch as have been deſcribed.

It is common in Guiana, Brazil, and various parts of South and North-America.

It is called the *Cayenne Cat*, and is not ſo frequent in temperate as in warm climates.

Lynx.—This animal differs greatly from every animal of the cat kind we have hitherto deſcribed. Its ears are long and erect, tufted at the end with long black hairs, by which this ſpecies of animals is peculiarly diſtinguiſhed: the hair of the body is long and ſoft, of a red-aſh colour, marked with duſky ſpots, which differ according to the age of the creature; ſometimes they are ſcarcely viſible: its legs and feet are very thick and ſtrong; its tail ſhort, and black at the extremity; its eyes are of a pale-yellow colour; and its aſpect ſofter and leſs ferocious than that of the panther or the ounce. The ſkin of the male is more ſpotted than that of the female.

The fur is valuable for its ſoftneſs and warmth, and is imported in great quantities from America and the north of Europe. In the United States there are three kinds of the lynx, each probably forming a diſtinct ſpecies. The *firſt (Lupus Cervarius*, Linn. 3d edit.) is called by the French and Engliſh Americans, *Loup Cervier*.* He is from two and a half to three feet in length; his tail is about five inches. His hair is long, of a light grey colour, forming, in ſome places, ſmall, irregular, dark ſhades; the end of his tail is black; his fur is fine and thick. He is the lynx of Siberia and ſome of the northern parts of Europe. A few may be found in the north-eaſtern parts of the diſtrict of Maine; but in the higher latitudes they are more numerous.

The *ſecond*, (*Catus Cervarius*, Linn.) is called by the French Americans, *Chat Cervier*; and in New England, the wild cat. He is conſiderably leſs than the former, or the *Loup Cervier*. He is from two to two feet and a half long; his tail is proportionably ſhorter, about three inches long, and wants the tuft of black hair on the end of it. His hair is ſhorter, particularly on his legs and feet; is of a

* Pronounced Loocervee.

darker

darker colour, brown, dark ſallow and grey, variouſly intermixed. His fur is ſaid to be of a very different quality; his ears are ſhorter, and he has very little of the pencil of black hairs on the tips of them, which is ſo remarkable in the former kind. This animal deſtroyed many of the cattle of the firſt ſettlers of New England.

The *third* ſpecies is about the ſize of a common cat. The colour of the male is a bright brown or bay, with black ſpots on his legs. His tail is about four inches long, and encircled by eight white rings: the female is of a reddiſh grey.——Found in the middle and ſouthern States.

To the above liſt of animals of the cat kind we muſt add the *Kincajou*.—This animal, Mr. Morſe obſerves, belongs to the family of cats; at leaſt, he very much reſembles them. He is about as large as a common cat, and is better formed for agility and ſpeed than for ſtrength. His tail gradually tapers to the end, and is as long as his whole body. His colour is yellow. Between him and the fox there is perpetual war. He hunts in the ſame manner as do other animals of that claſs; but being able to ſuſpend himſelf by twining the end of his tail round the limb of a tree, or the like, he can purſue his prey where other cats cannot; and when he attacks a large animal, his tail enables him to ſecure his hold till he can open the blood veſſels of the neck. In ſome parts of Canada theſe animals are very numerous, and make great havoc among the deer, and do not ſpare even the neat cattle: but we have heard of none in the United States, except a few in the northern parts of New Hampſhire.

Beaver.—The beaver is the moſt induſtrious of all animals. Its labours ſeem the reſult of a ſocial compact, formed for mutual convenience, preſervation and ſupport; and as, in all well-regulated ſocieties, a due ſubordination is neceſſary for the well-ordering and conducting each individual effort to the advantage of the whole; ſo, amongſt theſe curious animals, we find that, in forming their habitations, all have their proper part of the work aſſigned to them, that, by dividing their labours, ſafety, ſtability and expedition, may be the general effect. To this purpoſe, a community of two or three hundred aſſemble together: an overſeer is choſen, whoſe orders are punctually obeyed; and, by ſtriking the water ſmartly with his tail, gives the ſignal where the united force of numbers is neceſſary to be applied, in order to ſtrengthen or ſupport the fabric; or, at the approach of an enemy, to apprize the ſociety of their danger. As ſoon as a convenient place is choſen for the erection of their building,

which is generally a level piece of ground with a ſmall rivulet running through it, they divide into companies: ſome are employed in cutting down trees of great ſize, which is done by gnawing them with their teeth: theſe they lay acroſs the dam with ſurpriſing labour and perſeverance, or form into piles, which others roll down to the water, where they make holes at the bottom for receiving the ends, and placing them upright, ſecure them in that poſition; whilſt another party is engaged in collecting twigs, interweaving and twiſting them with the piles, and thereby ſtrengthening the work: ſome collect large quantities of earth, ſtones, clay and other ſolid materials, which they diſpoſe of on the upper ſide of the piles next the ſtream, forming a mound ten or twelve feet thick at the bottom, tapering gradually upwards, and capable of ſuſtaining a conſiderable weight of water. The length of the dam, occaſioned by this means, is ſometimes not leſs than one hundred feet.—Having completed the mole, their next care is to erect their apartments, which are built on piles: they are of a circular form, and generally conſiſt of two ſtories, about eight feet high above the water; the firſt lies below the level of the dam, and is generally full of water; the other above it. The walls are two feet in thickneſs, neatly plaiſtered with clay on the inſide, which is arched like an oven, and at the top reſembles a dome.—In each houſe there are two openings, one towards the water, to which the animal has always acceſs, in caſe of ſurpriſe; the other towards the land, by which it goes out in queſt of food.—The number of houſes in one of theſe dams is from ten to twenty-five, ſome of them large enough to contain a family of twenty or thirty beavers. Each beaver forms its bed of moſs; and each family lays in its magazine of winter proviſion, which conſiſts of bark and boughs of trees: they pile up the latter with great ingenuity and regularity, and draw it out to their apartments as their wants require. They are ſaid to be fondeſt of the ſaſſafras, aſh, and ſweet gum. During ſummer, they feed on leaves, fruits and ſometimes crabs or cray-fiſh; but fiſh is not their favourite food. Their time of building is early in the ſummer. In winter, they never go farther than to their proviſion ſtores, and, during that ſeaſon, are very fat.

They breed once a year, and bring forth two or three at a birth.

Beavers are found chiefly in the northern parts of Europe, Aſia and America; particularly the latter, from whence many thouſands

of

of their ſkins are annually brought into Europe. They vary in colour; the moſt valuable are black with a deep fur; but the general colour is a cheſnut brown, more or leſs dark. Some have been found entirely white, others ſpotted; but both theſe kinds are very rare.

The beaver is remarkable for the ſize and ſtrength of its cutting teeth, which enable it to gnaw down trees of great magnitude with eaſe. Its ears are ſhort, and almoſt hid in the fur; its noſe blunt, tail broad and flat, nearly of an oval form, and covered with ſcales; it ſerves not only as a rudder to direct its motions in the water, but as a moſt uſeful inſtrument for laying on the clay, preſſing it into the crevices, and ſmoothing the outward covering; its fore feet are ſmall, and not unlike thoſe of a rat; the hind feet are large and ſtrong, with membranes between each toe; its length, from noſe to tail, is about three feet; the tail is eleven inches long, and three broad.

The caſtor produced from theſe animals is found in a liquid ſtate, in bags near the anus, about the ſize of an egg. When taken off, the matter dries, and is reducible to a powder, which is oily, of a ſharp bitter taſte, and a ſtrong diſagreeable ſmell. Theſe bags are found indifferently in males and females, and were formerly ſuppoſed to be the animal's teſticles; which, when purſued, it was ſaid to bite off, and by that means eſcape with its life.

The Otter.---Although the otter is not conſidered by naturaliſts as wholly amphibious, it is nevertheleſs capable of remaining a conſiderable time under water, and can purſue and take its prey in that element with great facility.

Its legs are very ſhort, but remarkably ſtrong, broad and muſcular; on each foot are five toes, connected by ſtrong membranes, like thoſe of water fowl; its head is broad, of an oval form, and flat on the upper part; the body is long and round, and the tail tapers to a point; the eyes are brilliant, and placed in ſuch a manner, that the animal can ſee every object that is above it, which gives it a ſingular aſpect, very much reſembling an eel or an aſp: the ears are ſhort and their orifice narrow.

The colour of the otter is of a deep brown, with two ſmall light ſpots on each ſide of the noſe, and another under the chin.

This animal makes its neſt in ſome retired ſpot by the ſide of a lake or river, under a bank, where it has an eaſy and ſecure acceſs to the water, to which it immediately flies upon the leaſt alarm; and,

and, as it ſwims with great rapidity, generally eſcapes from its purſuers.

It deſtroys great quantities of fiſh, and, in purſuit of its prey, has been obſerved commonly to ſwim againſt the ſtream.

As ſoon as the otter has caught a fiſh, it immediately drags it to the ſhore, devours a part as far as the vent, and, unleſs preſſed by extreme hunger, always leaves the remainder, and takes to the water in queſt of more.

Otters are generally taken in traps placed near their landing places, where they are carefully concealed in the ſand. When hunted with dogs, the old ones defend themſelves with great obſtinacy; they bite ſeverely, and do not readily quit their hold where they have once faſtened. An old otter will never give up while it has life, nor make the leaſt complaint though wounded ever ſo much by the dogs, nor even when transfixed with a ſpear.

Otters are found in moſt parts of the world, with no great variation. They are numerous in North-America, and are common in Guiana, frequenting the rivers and marſhes of that country. They are ſometimes ſeen in great numbers together, and are ſo fierce, that it is dangerous to come near them. They live in holes, which they make in the banks of the rivers.

The otters of Cayenne are very large, weighing from ninety to one hundred pounds. They frequent the large rivers of that country; their cry is loud, and may be heard at a great diſtance; they are of a dark brown colour; their fur is ſhorter than that of the beaver, and very ſoft.

Beſide theſe there is an animal called *The Sea Otter*.---Vaſt numbers of theſe animals inhabit the coaſt of Kamtſchatka, and the numerous iſlands contiguous to it, as well as the oppoſite coaſts of America; they are alſo found in ſome of the larger rivers of South-America.

Their ſkins are of great value, and have long formed a conſiderable article of export from Ruſſia. They diſpoſe of them to the Chineſe at the rate of ſeventy or a hundred rubles each, and receive in return ſome of their moſt valuable commodities.

The fur of the ſea otter is thick and long, of a beautiful ſhining black colour, but ſometimes of a ſilvery hue; the legs are thick and ſhort; the toes joined by a web; the hind feet like thoſe of a ſeal; length, from noſe to tail, four feet two inches; tail thirteen,

flat

flat and pointed at the end: the largeſt of them weigh from ſeventy to eighty pounds.

The ſea otter is remarkably harmleſs, and moſt affectionately fond of its young; it will pine to death for its loſs, and die on the very ſpot where it has been taken away. Before its young can ſwim, it will carry it in its paws, and ſupport it in the water, laying upon its back. It ſwims in various poſitions, on its back, ſides, and even in a perpendicular poſture, and in the water is very ſportive. Two of them are ſometimes ſeen embracing each other. It frequents ſhallow places abounding with ſea weed, and feeds on lobſters, crabs, and other ſhell fiſh.

It breeds but once a year, and produces one young at a time, which it ſuckles and carefully attends almoſt a year.

The fleſh of a young otter is reckoned delicate eating, and not eaſily diſtinguiſhed from that of a lamb.

The Weaſel is about nine inches in length; his body is remarkably round and ſlender; his tail long and well furniſhed with hair; his legs very ſhort, and his toes armed with ſharp claws. His hair is ſhort and thick, and of a pale yellowiſh colour, except about the breaſt, where it is white. This is a very ſprightly animal; notwithſtanding the ſhortneſs of its legs, it ſeems to dart rather than to run. He kills and eats rats, ſtriped ſquirrels, and other ſmall quadrupeds: he likewiſe kills fowls, ſucks their blood, and eſteems their eggs a delicacy. He is found at Hudſon's bay, Newfoundland, and as far as South Carolina.

Stoat, or Ermine.---It does not differ materially from the weaſel in ſize, form or habits; even his colour is the ſame in ſummer, except that the end of his tail is black, and the edges of his ears and toes are white. In winter he is entirely white, except the tip of the tail. He is generally conſidered as forming a ſpecies diſtinct from the weaſel; but Linnæus makes them the ſame. They are ſaid to be found in the ſame places as the former, and Mr. Belknap mentions, that a few have been ſeen in New-Hampſhire.

In addition to the preceding, America has another variety of this family, which appears to differ from the weaſel in no reſpect except in its colour, which is perfectly white, both in ſummer and winter.

Martin.—This animal is called the martin (*Marte*) by M. de Buffon; in England the pine martin, fir martin, yellow-breaſted martin, pine weaſel, and yellow-breaſted weaſel; in New-England the ſable; and by the Indians Wauppanaugh. He is formed like the

weaſel; is generally about ſixteen inches long, and is of a ſallow colour; but his ſize, and the ſhades of his colour, vary in different parts of the country. Some have ſpots of yellow on the breaſt, others of white, and others have none. He keeps in foreſts chiefly on trees, and lives by hunting. He is found in the northern parts of North-America quite to the South ſea; his ſkin is exceeding valuable.

Mink.---The mink is about as large as a martin, and of the ſame form. The hair on its tail is ſhorter; its colour is generally black, and its fur coaſer; ſome have a white ſpot under their throats, others have none. They burrow in the ground, and purſue their prey both in freſh and ſalt water. Thoſe which frequent the ſalt water are of a larger ſize, lighter colour, and have inferior fur. They are found in conſiderable numbers both in the ſouthern and northern States, and in general wherever the martin is found.

Fiſher.---In Canada he is called pekan, and in the American States frequently the black cat, but improperly, as he does not belong to the claſs of cats. He has a general reſemblance to the martin, but is conſiderably larger, being from twenty to twenty-four inches in length, and twelve in circumference. His tail is a little more than half its length; its hair long and buſhy; his fore legs about four inches and a half long, his hinder legs ſix inches; his ears ſhort and round. His colour is black, except the head, neck and ſhoulders, which are a dark grey. He lives by hunting, and occaſionally purſues his prey in the water. Found in the northern States, Canada, and Hudſon's bay. Of each of the animals we have mentioned under this diviſion, there are ſeveral varieties which have obtained different names, as the pekan, viſon, &c.

Skunk.---This animal is about a foot and a half long, of a moderate height and ſize. His tail is long and buſhy; his hair long and chiefly black; but on his head, neck and back, is found more or leſs of white, without any regularity or uniformity. He appears to ſee but indifferently when the ſun ſhines, and therefore in the daytime keeps cloſe to his burrow. As ſoon as the twilight commences he goes in queſt of his food, which is principally beetles and other inſects; he is alſo very fond of eggs and young chickens. His fleſh is ſaid to be tolerably good, and his fat is ſometimes uſed as an emollient. But what renders this animal remarkable is, his being furniſhed with organs for ſecreting and retaining a liquor, volatile and fœtid beyond any thing known, and which he has the power

of

of emitting to the diſtance of a rod or more, when neceſſary for his defence. When this ammunition is expended he is quite harmleſs.* This volatile fœtor is a powerful antiſpaſmodic. This animal is found in all parts of America from Hudſon's bay to Peru.

There are three or four varieties mentioned by M. Buffon under the name of the *Stinking Polecats*, all of which poſſeſs this wonderful quality of annoying their enemies from the ſame quarter.

Some turn their tail to their purſuers, and emit a moſt horrible ſtench, which keeps both dogs and men at a conſiderable diſtance. Others eject their urine to the diſtance of ſeveral feet, and it is of ſo virulent a quality, as almoſt to occaſion blindneſs, if any of it ſhould happen to fall into the eyes. Clothes infected with it retain the ſmell for many days; no waſhing can make them ſweet, but they muſt be even buried in freſh ſoil before they can be thoroughly cleanſed. Dogs that are not properly bred turn back as ſoon as they perceive the ſmell; thoſe that have been accuſtomed to it will kill the animal, but are obliged to relieve themſelves by thruſting their noſes into the ground.

* Concerning the American ſkunk, Dr. Mitchell, in a letter to Dr. Poſt, 1788, writes thus: "Not long ſince I had an opportunity to diſſect the American ſkunk, (*Viverra putorius*, Linn.) The moſt remarkable appearances, on examination, were the following: the ſkin was exceedingly lax, inſomuch that when pulled away from the ſubjacent membrane, the hairs, in many places drawn through it, were left rooted in the fat; the urine poſſeſſed no more fœtor than is common to that excrementitious fluid in many other animals: but the peculiar odoriferous ſubſtance, which the creature emits when purſued, proceeds from two ſacks, each capable of containing about half an ounce, ſituated at the extremity of the *inteſtinum rectum*, and ſurrounded by large and ſtrong circular muſcles, which contracting by a voluntary exertion, force out the thick yellowiſh liquor through two ducts, opening near the verge of the anus. As the animal is neither ſwift nor ſtrong, this ſeems to have been given it as a defence againſt its enemies, on whoſe approach the volatile matter is diſcharged with conſiderable force, and to no ſmall diſtance. From its analogy to muſk, ambergris, civet and caſtor, I am ſtrongly inclined to think it might be with advantage ranked among the antiſpaſmodics of the Materia Medica, or claſſed with drugs in the ſhops of perfumers.

"A ſimilar ſubſtance, although not ſo abundant and fragrant, I have likewiſe found in bags of the ſame kind, when I diſſected the common weaſel (*Muſtela vulgaris*) which, in all probability, will be found to poſſeſs virtues not much differing from the ſpodnar, or liquor of the viverra, or the American ſkunk.

"The muſquaſh, (*Caſtor muſcatus*) which I have alſo diſſected, has no ſacks of this kind, and therefore I am forcibly led to ſuſpect that its odour reſides in the cuticular exhalants and perſpired matter."

The *Stifling*, or *Squaſh*, which is the ſecond variety, is nearly of the ſame ſize with the ſkunk; its hair is long and of a deep brown colour; it lives in holes and clefts of rocks, where the female brings forth her young: it is a native of Mexico, and feeds on beetles, worms and ſmall birds: it deſtroys poultry, of which it only eats the brains. When afraid or irritated it voids the ſame offenſive kind of odour, which no creature dare venture to approach. Profeſſor Kalm was in danger of being ſuffocated by one that was purſued into a houſe where he ſlept; and it affected the cattle ſo much, that they bellowed through pain. Another, which was killed by a maid-ſervant in a cellar, ſo affected her with its ſtench, that ſhe lay ill for ſeveral days: all the proviſions that were in the places were ſo tainted with the ſmell, as to be utterly unfit for uſe. This is the coaſſe of Buffon, of which we have given the figure.

Another variety is called the *Conepate*; it is ſomewhat ſmaller, and differs chiefly from the ſquaſh in being marked with five parallel white lines, which run along its back and ſides from head to tail.

It is a native of North-America. When attacked it briſtles up its hair, throws itſelf into a round form, and emits an odour which no creature can ſupport.

The laſt of this peſtiferous family which we ſhall mention is the

Zorilla.—This animal is a native of New-Spain, where it is called the mariputa: it is found on the banks of the river Oronoque; and, although extremely beautiful, is at the ſame time the moſt offenſive of all creatures. Its body is beautifully marked with white ſtripes upon a black ground, running from the head to the middle of the back; from whence they are croſſed with other white bands, which cover the lower part of the back and flanks: its tail is long and buſhy, black as far as the middle, and white to its extremity: it is an active and miſchievous little animal; its ſtench is ſaid to extend to a conſiderable diſtance, and is ſo powerful as to overcome even the panther of America, which is one of its greateſt enemies.

Notwithſtanding this offenſive quality in theſe animals, they are frequently tamed, and will follow their maſter. They do not emit their odour, unleſs when beaten or irritated. They are frequently killed by the native Indians, who immediately cut away the noxious glands, thereby preventing the fleſh, which is good eating, from being infected. Its taſte is ſaid nearly to reſemble the flavour of a young pig. The ſavage Indians make purſes of their ſkins.

The

The *Coati*, or *Brazilian Weaſel*.---This animal has ſome reſemblance to the bear, in the length of its hind legs, in the form of its feet, in the buſhineſs of its hair, and in the ſtructure of its paws. It is ſmall; its tail is long, and variegated with different colours; its upper jaw is much longer than the lower, and very pliant; its ears are rounded: its hair is ſmooth, ſoft and gloſſy, of a bright bay colour; and its breaſt is whitiſh.

It inhabits Braſil and Guiana, runs up trees very nimbly, eats like a dog, and holds its food between its fore legs like a bear.

The Coati ſtands with eaſe on its hind feet. It is ſaid to gnaw its own tail, which it generally carries erect, and ſweeps it about from ſide to ſide.

ANIMALS OF THE BADGER KIND.

The common European badger is the only one found in America; for the animal of this genus, deſcribed as a different ſpecies, and called the American badger, is nothing more than a variation of the former. It is found in the neighbourhood of Hudſon's bay and Canada, as likewiſe in ſome of the United States, but does not appear to be numerous.

ANIMALS OF THE OPPOSSUM KIND.

Virginian Oppoſſum.—This animal has a long ſharp-pointed noſe; large, round, naked, and very thin ears, black, edged with pure white, ſmall, black, lively eyes; long ſtiff hairs each ſide the noſe, and behind the eyes; face covered with ſhort ſoft white hairs; ſpace round the eyes duſky; neck very ſhort, its ſides of a dirty yellow; hind part of the neck and the back covered with hair above two inches long, ſoft but uneven, the bottoms of a yellowiſh white, middle part black, ends whitiſh; ſides covered with dirty and duſky hairs, belly with ſoft, woolly, dirty white hair; legs and thighs black; feet duſky; claws white; baſe of the tail clothed with long hairs like thoſe on the back; reſt of the tail covered with ſmall ſcales, the half next the body black, the reſt white; it has a diſagreeable appearance, looking like the body of a ſnake, and has the ſame prehenſile quality as that of ſome monkies; body round and very thick; legs ſhort; on the lower part of the belly of the female is a large pouch, in which the teats are lodged, and where the young ſhelter as ſoon as they are born.

The uſual length of the animal is, from the tip of the noſe to the baſe of the tail, about twenty inches; of the tail twelve inches.

Inhabits Virginia, Louiſiana, Mexico, Braſil and Peru; is very deſtructive to poultry, and ſucks the blood without eating the fleſh; feeds alſo on roots and wild fruits; is very active in climbing trees, will hang ſuſpended from the branches by its tail, and, by ſwinging its body, fling itſelf among the boughs of the neighbouring trees; continues frequently hanging with its head downwards; hunts eagerly after birds and their neſts; walks very ſlow; when purſued and overtaken will feign itſelf dead; not eaſily killed, being as tenacious of life as a cat; when the female is about to bring forth, ſhe makes a thick neſt of dry graſs in ſome cloſe buſh at the foot of a tree, and brings four, five or ſix young at a time.

As ſoon as the young are brought forth they take ſhelter in the pouch, or falſe belly, and faſten ſo cloſely to the teats, as not to be ſeparated without difficulty; they are blind, naked, and very ſmall when new-born, and reſemble *fœtuſes*; it is therefore neceſſary that they ſhould continue there till they attain a perfect ſhape, ſtrength, fight and hair, and are prepared to undergo what may be called a ſecond birth; after which they run into this pouch as into an aſylum in time of danger, and the parent carries them about with her. During the time of this ſecond geſtation, the female ſhews an exceſſive attachment to her young, and will ſuffer any torture rather than permit this receptacle to be opened, for ſhe has power of opening or cloſing it by the aſſiſtance of ſome very ſtrong muſcles.

The fleſh of the old animals is very good, like that of a ſucking pig; the hair is dyed by the Indian women, and wove into garters and girdles; the ſkin is very fœtid.

Murine Oppoſſum.—This animal has long broad ears, rounded at the end, thin and naked; eyes encompaſſed with black; face, head, and upper part of the body, of a tawny colour; the belly yelloviſh white; the feet covered with ſhort whitiſh hair; toes formed like thoſe of the Virginian; tail ſlender, covered with minute ſcales, from the tip to within two inches of the baſe, which are clothed with hair. Length, from noſe to tail, about eight inches; tail of the ſame length: the female wants the falſe belly of the former, but, on the lower part, the ſkin forms on each ſide a fold, between which the teats are lodged.

This ſpecies varies in colour. It inhabits the hot parts of South-America, agrees with the others in its food, manners, and the prehenſile powers of its tail: it brings from ten to fourteen young at a time;

time; at leaſt, in ſome ſpecies, there are that number of teats: the young affix themſelves to the teats as ſoon as they are born, and remain attached, like ſo many inanimate things, till they attain growth and vigour to ſhift a little for themſelves.

Mexican Oppoſſum has large, angular, naked and tranſparent ears; noſe thicker than that of the former kind; whiſkers very large; a ſlight border of black ſurrounds the eyes; face of a dirty white, with a dark line running down the middle; the hairs on the head, and upper part of the body, aſh-coloured at the roots, of a deep tawny brown at the tips; legs duſky; claws white; belly dull cinereous; tail long and pretty thick, varied with brown and yellow, is hairy near an inch from its origin, the reſt naked; length, from noſe to tail, about nine inches; the tail the length of the body and head.

Inhabits the mountains of Mexico, lives in trees, where it brings forth its young; when in any fright they embrace their parent cloſely; the tail is prehenſile, and ſerves inſtead of a hand.

Cayenne Oppoſſum.—It has a long ſlender face; ears erect, pointed and ſhort; the coat woolly, mixed with very coarſe hairs, three inches long, of a dirty white from the roots to the middle, from thence to the ends of a deep brown; ſides and belly of a pale yellow; legs of a duſky brown; thumb on each foot diſtinct; on the toes of the fore feet and thumb of the hind are nails, on the toes of the hind feet crooked claws; tail very long, taper, naked and ſcaly. Length ſeventeen French inches; of the tail fifteen and a half: the ſubject meaſured was young.

Inhabits Cayenne, very active in climbing trees, on which it lives the whole day: in marſhy places feeds on crabs, which, when it cannot draw out of their holes with its feet, hooks them by means of its long tail; if the crab pinches its tail the animal ſets up a loud cry, which may be heard afar; its common voice is a grunt like a young pig: it is well furniſhed with teeth, and will defend itſelf ſtoutly againſt dogs; brings forth four or five young, which it ſecures in ſome hollow tree. The natives eat theſe animals, and ſay their fleſh reſembles a hare. They are eaſily tamed, and will then refuſe no kind of food.

PECCARY OR MEXICAN HOG.

This animal, called the Mexican hog, inhabits the hotteſt parts of South-America, where the ſpecies is very numerous; herds conſiſting

ſiſting of two or three hundred are ſometimes to be ſeen together. It is very fierce, and will fight ſtoutly with beaſts of prey when attacked by them. The jaguar is its mortal enemy, and frequently loſes its life in engaging a number of theſe animals, for they aſſiſt each other whenever attacked.

They live chiefly in mountainous places, and are not fond of wallowing in the mire like the common hog. They feed on fruits, roots and ſeeds; they likewiſe eat ſerpents, toads and lizards, and are very dexterous in firſt taking off the ſkin with their fore feet and teeth.

It is ſomewhat ſmaller than the common hog; its body is covered with long briſtles, which, when the creature is irritated, riſe up like the prickles of a hedgehog, and are nearly as ſtrong, they are of a duſky colour, with alternate rings of white; acroſs the ſhoulders to the breaſt there is a band of white; its head is ſhort and thick; it has two tuſks in each jaw; its ears are ſmall and erect; and inſtead of a tail it has a ſmall fleſhy protuberance, which does not cover its poſteriors. It differs moſt eſſentially from the hog, in having a ſmall orifice on the lower part of the back, from whence a thin watry humour, of a moſt diſagreeable ſmell, flows very copiouſly.

Like the common hog, the peccary is very prolific. The young ones, if taken at firſt, are eaſily tamed, and ſoon loſe all their natural ferocity, but can never be brought to diſcover any ſigns of attachment to thoſe that feed them.

Their fleſh is drier and leaner than that of our hog, but is by no means diſagreeable, and may be greatly improved by caſtration.

Although the European hog is common in America, and in many parts has become wild, the peccary has never been known to breed with it. They frequently go together, and feed in the ſame woods; but hitherto no intermediate breed has been known to ariſe from their intercourſe.

ANIMALS OF THE CAVY KIND.

Guinea-Pig, or *Reſtleſs Cavy*.—This little animal is a native of Braſil, but lives and propagates in temperate and even in cold climates, when protected from the inclemency of the ſeaſons. Great numbers are kept in a domeſtic ſtate, and therefore we conceive any further obſervations are unneceſſary.

Cabiai.

CABIAI

PACA

MARMOT

COASSE

Cabiai.—This is a native of South-America, and lives on the banks of great rivers, ſuch as the Oronoque, Amazons, and Rio de la Plata; ſwims and dives remarkably well, and is very dexterous in catching fiſh, upon which it chiefly ſubſiſts: it likewiſe eats grain, fruits and ſugar-canes; feeds moſtly in the night, and commits great ravages in the gardens. They generally keep in large herds, and make a noiſe not much unlike the braying of an aſs.

Its fleſh is fat and tender, but, like that of the otter, has an oily and fiſhy taſte. It is about the ſize of a ſmall hog, and, by ſome naturaliſts, has been claſſed with that animal.

Its fore hoofs are divided into four, the hind ones into three; its head is large and thick, and on the noſe there are long whiſkers; its ears are ſmall and rounded, and its eyes large and black; there are two large cutting-teeth and eight grinders in each jaw, and each of theſe grinders forms on its ſurface what appears to be three teeth, flat at their ends; the legs are ſhort, the toes long, and connected at the bottom with a ſmall web; the end of each toe is guarded by a ſmall hoof; it has no tail; the hair on the body is ſhort, rough, and of a brown colour.

It is a gentle animal, eaſily tamed, and will follow thoſe who feed it and treat it kindly.

As it runs badly, on account of the peculiar conſtruction of its feet, its ſafety conſiſts not in flight; Nature has provided it with other means of preſervation; when in danger it plunges into the water and dives to a great diſtance.

Paca, or *Spotted Cavy*.—This animal is about the ſize of a hare, but its body is much thicker, plumper and fatter. The colour of the hair on the back is dark brown or liver-coloured; it is lighter on the ſides, which are beautifully marked with lines of white ſpots, running in parallel directions from its throat to its rump; thoſe on the upper part of the body are perfectly diſtinct; the belly is white. Its head is large; its ears ſhort and naked; its eyes full and placed high in its head near the ears; in the lower part of each jaw, immediately under the eye, it has a remarkably deep ſlit or furrow, which ſeems like the termination of the jaw, and has the appearance of an opening of the mouth; its upper jaw projects beyond the under; it has two ſtrong yellow cutting-teeth in each jaw; its mouth is ſmall, and its upper lip is divided; it has long whiſkers on its lips, and on each ſide of its head under the ears; its legs are ſhort; it has four toes on the fore feet, and three on the hind; it has no

tail. It is a native of South-America, and lives on the banks of rivers in warm and moiſt places. It digs holes in the ground, ſecretes itſelf during the day, and goes out at night in queſt of food.

It is a cleanly animal, and will not bear the ſmalleſt degree of dirtineſs in its apartment. When purſued it takes to the water, and eſcapes by diving. If attacked by dogs it makes a vigorous defence. Its fleſh is eſteemed a great delicacy by the natives of Braſil.

We think this animal might be eaſily naturaliſed in this country, and added to our ſtock of uſeful animals. It is not much afraid of cold, and being accuſtomed to burrow, it would by that means defend itſelf againſt the rigours of our winter.

There are ſeveral varieties of them, ſome of which weigh from fourteen to twenty, and even thirty pounds.

Agouti, or *Long-noſed Cavy*.—This animal is about the ſize of a hare; its noſe is long, upper lip divided, ſkin ſleek and ſhining, of a brown colour mixed with red, tail ſhort, legs ſlender and almoſt naked; has four toes on the fore feet and three on the hind; grunts like a pig, ſits on its hind legs, and feeds itſelf with its paws; and when ſatiated with food it conceals the remainder. It eats fruits, roots, nuts, and almoſt every kind of vegetable; is hunted with dogs, runs faſt, and its motions are like thoſe of a hare. Its fleſh, which reſembles that of a rabbit, is eaten by the inhabitants of South-America.

Great numbers of them are found in Guiana and Braſil. They live in woods, hedges and hollow trees.

The female brings forth at all times of the year, and produces three, four, and ſometimes five at a time.

Akouchi.—This ſeems to be a variety of the agouti, and, though ſomewhat leſs, is nearly of the ſame form, but its tail is longer. It inhabits the ſame countries, is of an olive colour; its fleſh is white, delicate, and has the flavour of a young rabbit; is much eſteemed by the natives, who hunt it with dogs, and reckon it among the fineſt game of South-America.

Rock Cavy.—This is likewiſe found in Braſil, is about twelve inches in length; the colour of the upper part of its body reſembles that of the hare; its belly is white; the upper lip divided; the ears ſhort and rounded like thoſe of a rat, and has no tail. It moves likes the hare, its fore legs being ſhorter than the hind. It has four toes on the fore feet, and only three on the hind. Its fleſh

is

is like that of the rabbit, and its manner of living is alſo very ſimilar.

ANIMALS OF THE HARE KIND.

American Hare.—This animal is not much more than half the the ſize of the European hare; its ears are tipt with grey, the neck and body mixed with cinereous, ruſt colour, and black; the upper part of the tail black and the lower part white; the legs are of a pale ferruginous, and the belly white. This animal is found in all parts of North-America, South of New-Jerſey it retains its colour all the year; but to the northward, in New-England, Canada and Hudſon's bay, it changes at the approach of winter; its ſummer coat for one, long, ſoft and ſilvery, the edges of its ears only preſerving their colour. Its fleſh is good, and is exceeding uſeful to thoſe who winter at Hudſon's bay, where they are taken in abundance.

Varying Hare.—This animal in ſummer is grey, with a ſlight mixture of black and tawny; tail white, and the feet cloſely and warmly covered with fur: in winter it changes to a ſnowy white, except the tips and edges of the ears, which remain black: this change not only takes place in the cold bleak regions of the north, but when kept tame in ſtove-warmed rooms. They are in America chiefly found about Hudſon's bay and Cook's river.

Braſilian Hare.—This animal has very large ears, a white ring round its neck, in every other reſpect the ſame as the common hare. It is found in Braſil and Mexico, and is very good for food.

Mr. Morſe mentions another ſpecies found in all the United States, which burrows like a rabbit; this he thinks to be peculiar to America. The rabbit, though it thrives well, particularly in South-America, was never found wild in any part of the American continent.

SLOTH.

Of all animals this is the moſt ſluggiſh and inactive; and, if we were to judge from outward appearance, would ſeem the moſt helpleſs and wretched. All its motions ſeem to be the effect of the moſt painful exertion, which hunger alone is capable of exciting.

It lives chiefly in trees; and having aſcended one with infinite labour and difficulty, it remains there till it has entirely ſtripped it of all its verdure, ſparing neither fruit, bloſſom nor leaf; after which it is ſaid to devour even the bark. Being unable to deſcend, it throws itſelf on the ground, and continues at the bottom of the tree till hunger again compels it to renew its toils in ſearch of ſubſiſtence.

Its motions are accompanied with a moſt piteous and lamentable cry, which terrifies even beaſts of prey, and proves its beſt defence.

Though ſlow, aukward, and almoſt incapable of motion, the ſloth is ſtrong, remarkably tenacious of life, and capable of enduring a long abſtinence from food. We are told of one that, having faſtened itſelf by its feet to a pole, remained in that ſituation forty days without the leaſt ſuſtenance. The ſtrength in its legs and feet is ſo great, that, having ſeized any thing, it is almoſt impoſſible to oblige it to quit its hold.

There are two kinds of ſloths, which are principally diſtinguiſhed by the number of their claws: the one called the *ai* is about the ſize of a fox, and has three long claws on each foot; its legs are clumſy and aukwardly placed; and the fore legs being longer than the hind, add greatly to the difficulty of its progreſſive motion: its whole body is covered with a rough coat of long hair, of a lightiſh-brown colour, mixed with white, not unlike that of a badger, and has a black line down the middle of the back; its face is naked, and of a dirty white colour; tail ſhort, eyes ſmall, black and heavy. It is found only in South-America.

The *Unau* has only two claws on each foot; its head is ſhort and round, ſomewhat like that of a monkey; its ears are ſhort, and it has no tail. It is found in South-America, and alſo in the iſland of Ceylon.

The fleſh of both kinds is eaten. They have ſeveral ſtomachs, and are ſaid to belong to the tribe of ruminating animals.

ANT-EATERS.

There are ſeveral animals diſtinguiſhed by the common name of ant-eaters, which differ greatly in form. They are divided into three claſſes, viz. the Great, the Middle, and the Leſſer Ant-eater.

The Great Ant-eater is nearly four feet in length, excluſive of its tail, which is two and a half. It is remarkable for the great length of its ſnout, which is of a cylindrical form, and ſerves as a ſheath to its long and ſlender tongue, which always lies folded double in its mouth, and is the chief inſtrument by which it finds ſubſiſtence.

This creature is a native of Braſil and Guiana, runs ſlowly, frequently ſwims over rivers, lives wholly on ants, which it collects by thruſting its tongue into their holes, and having penetrated into every part of the neſt, withdraws it into its mouth loaded with prey.

Its

Twelve-banded ARMADILLO. *Six-banded* ARMADILLO.

COENDOU. *BRASILIAN PORCUPINE.* *URSON.*

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Its legs are ſo ſtrong, that few animals can extricate themſelves from its gripe. It is ſaid to be formidable even to the panthers of America, and ſometimes fixes itſelf upon them in ſuch a manner, that both of them fall and periſh together; for its obſtinacy is ſo great, that it will not extricate itſelf from its adverſary even after he is dead.

The fleſh has a ſtrong diſagreeable taſte, but it is eaten by the Indians.

The Middle Ant-eater is about one foot ſeven inches from noſe to tail; it inhabits the ſame countries, and procures its food in the ſame manner as the laſt. Its tail is ten inches long, with which it ſecures its hold in climbing trees by twiſting it round the branches.

Both theſe animals have four ſtrong claws on the fore feet, and five on the hind.

The Leſſer Ant-eater has a ſharp-pointed noſe, inclining a little downwards; its ears are ſmall, and hid in the fur; it has two ſtrong hooked claws on the fore feet, the outward one being much the largeſt, and four on the hind feet; its fur is long, ſoft and ſilky, of a yellowiſh-brown colour; its length, from noſe to tail, is ſeven inches and a half, tail above eight, thick at the baſe, and taper to the end. It inhabits Guiana; climbs trees in queſt of a ſpecies of ants which build their neſts among the branches.

ANIMALS OF THE PORCUPINE KIND.

Braſilian Porcupine.—This animal is very different from that known in general under the name of porcupine; indeed it can ſcarcely be ſaid to bear any relation to it, except in its being covered with ſpines about three inches in length; they are white, very ſharp, and have a bar of black near the points. The breaſt, belly, and lower part of the legs, are covered with ſtrong briſtly hairs of a brown colour; its tail is long and ſlender, and almoſt naked at the end; the animal uſes it in deſcending trees by twiſting it round the branches.

It inhabits Mexico and Braſil, lives in woods, and feeds on fruits and ſmall birds; it preys by night and ſleeps in the day. It makes a noiſe like the grunting of a ſwine, and grows very fat. Its fleſh is white and eſteemed good to eat.

Coendou.—This animal inhabits the ſame countries with the laſt, and its habits and mode of living are ſimilar; but, in reſpect to its figure, it ſeems to be a very different animal. Its ears are ſhort and hid

hid in the hair: its head, body, and upper part of its tail, are covered with long ſoft hair, in which are interſperſed a number of ſtrong ſharp ſpines; its tail is ſhorter than that of the preceding ſpecies, and it uſes it in the ſame manner in deſcending trees, frequently ſuſpending itſelf from the branches.

Urſon.—The urchin, or urſon, is about two feet in length, and when fat, the ſame in circumference. He is commonly called hedgehog or porcupine, but differs from both thoſe animals in every characteriſtic mark, excepting his being armed with quills on his back and ſides; theſe quills are nearly as large as a wheat ſtraw, from three to four inches long, and, unleſs erected, nearly covered by the animal's hair; their points are very hard and filled with innumerable very ſmall barbs or ſcales, whoſe points are raiſed from the body of the quill. When the urchin is attacked by a dog, wolf, or other beaſt of prey, he throws himſelf into a poſture of defence, by ſhortening his body, elevating his back, and erecting his quills. The aſſailant ſoon finds ſome of thoſe weapons ſtuck into his mouth, or other parts of his body, and every effort which he makes to free himſelf cauſes them to penetrate the farther; they have been known to bury themſelves entirely in a few minutes. Sometimes they prove fatal, at other times they make their way out again through the ſkin from various parts of the body. If not moleſted it is an inoffenſive animal. He finds a hole or hollow which he makes his reſidence, and feeds on the barks and roots of vegetables. His fleſh, in the opinion of hunters, is equal to that of a ſucking pig. Is found in the northern States.

ARMADILLO.

This animal is found only in South-America, where there are ſeveral varieties of them. They are all covered with a ſtrong cruſt or ſhell, and are diſtinguiſhed from each other by the number of the flexible bands of which it is compoſed.

It is a harmleſs, inoffenſive animal, feeds on roots, fruits and other vegetables, grows very fat, and is greatly eſteemed for the delicacy of its fleſh.

The Indians hunt it with ſmall dogs trained for that purpoſe. When ſurpriſed it runs to its hole, or attempts to make a new one, which it does with great expedition, having ſtrong claws on its fore feet, with which it adheres ſo firmly to the ground, that if it ſhould be caught by the tail whilſt making its way into the earth, its reſiſtance is ſo great, that it will ſometimes leave it in the hands of its

pur-

purſuers: to avoid this the hunter has recourſe to artifice, and by tickling it with a ſtick it gives up its hold, and ſuffers itſelf to be taken alive. If no other means of eſcape be left, it rolls itſelf up within its covering by drawing in its head and legs, and bringing its tail round them as a band to connect them more forcibly together: in this ſituation it ſometimes eſcapes by rolling itſelf over the edge of a precipice, and generally falls to the bottom unhurt.

The moſt ſucceſsful method of catching armadillos is by ſnares laid for them by the ſides of rivers or other places where they frequent. They all burrow very deep in the ground, and ſeldom ſtir out except during the night, whilſt they are in ſearch of food.

To give a minute deſcription of the ſhells or coverings of the armadillos would be extremely difficult, as they are all compoſed of a number of parts, differing greatly from each other in the order and diſpoſition of the figures with which they are diſtinguiſhed: but it may be neceſſary to obſerve, that in general there are two large pieces that cover the ſhoulders and the rump, between which lie the bands, which are more or leſs in number in different kinds. Theſe bands are not unlike thoſe in the tail of a lobſter, and, being flexible, give way to the motions of the animal. The firſt we ſhall mention is the

Three-banded Armadillo.—Its ſhell is about twelve inches long, with three bands in the middle; the cruſt on the head, back and rump, is divided into a number of elegant raiſed figures, with five angles or ſides; its tail is not more than two inches long; it has neither cutting nor canine teeth, and has five toes on each foot.

Six-banded Armadillo.—Is about the ſize of a young pig. Between the folds of the bands there are a few ſcattered hairs; its tail is long, thick at the baſe, and tapers to a point. It is found in Braſil and Guiana.

Eight-banded Armadillo.—Its ears are long and upright, eyes ſmall and black; it has four toes on the fore feet and five on the hind; its length, from noſe to tail, is about ten inches, the tail nine. It inhabits Braſil, and is reckoned more delicious eating than the others.

Nine-banded Armadillo has a tenth band, moveable half way up on each ſide; the ſhell on the ſhoulders and rump is marked with hexangular figures; the breaſt and belly are covered with long hairs; its tail is long and taper, and the whole animal three feet in length.

One of this kind was brought to England a few years ago from

the Muſquito ſhore, and lived ſome time. It was fed with raw beef and milk, but refuſed to eat our fruits and grain.

The Kabaſſou is furniſhed with twelve bands, and is the largeſt of all the armadillos, being almoſt three feet long from noſe to tail; the figures on the ſhoulders are of an oblong form, thoſe on the rump hexangular. It is ſeldom eaten.

Weaſel-headed Armadillo, ſo called from the form of its head, which is ſlender, has eighteen bands from its ſhoulder to its tail; the ſhell is marked with ſquare figures on the ſhoulders, thoſe on the legs and thighs are roundiſh; the body is about fifteen inches long, tail five.

All theſe animals have the power of drawing themſelves up under their ſhells, either for the purpoſe of repoſe or ſafety. They are furniſhed with ſtrong lateral muſcles, conſiſting of numberleſs fibres, croſſing each other in the form of an X, with which they contract themſelves ſo powerfully, that the ſtrongeſt man is ſcarcely able to force them open. The ſhells of the larger armadillos are much ſtronger than thoſe of the ſmaller kinds; their fleſh is likewiſe harder and more unfit for the table.

ANIMALS OF THE MARMOT KIND.

Quebec Marmot.—This animal is called in the United States the woodchuck; his body is about ſixteen inches long, and nearly the ſame in circumference; his tail is moderately long and full of hair; his colour is a mixture of ſallow and grey. He digs a burrow in or near ſome cultivated field, and feeds on pulſe, the tops of cultivated clover, &c. He is generally very fat, excepting in the ſpring. The young are good meat, the old are rather rank and diſagreeable. In the beginning of October they retire to their burrows, and live in a torpid ſtate about ſix months. In many reſpects he agrees with the marmot of the Alps, in others he differs, and on the whole is probably not the ſame.

An animal reſembling the woodchuck is found in the ſouthern States, which is ſuppoſed to form another ſpecies, it is called the Maryland Marmot.

Beſides the above there are three other ſpecies of this genus found in America, the Hoary, the Tail-leſs, and the Ear-leſs Marmot; the two former are found in the northern parts of the continent, and the latter on the weſtern ſide only.

ANIMALS OF THE SQUIRREL KIND.

Fox Squirrel.—Of this animal there are ſeveral varieties, black, red and grey. It is nearly twice as large as the common grey ſquirrel, and is found in the ſouthern States, and is peculiar to the American continent.

Grey Squirrel.—The grey ſquirrel of America does not agree exactly with that of Europe, but is generally conſidered as of the the ſame ſpecies. Its name indicates its general colour; but ſome are black, and others black on the back and grey on the ſides. They make a neſt of moſs in a hollow tree, and here they depoſit their proviſion of nuts and acorns; this is the place of their reſidence during the winter, and here they bring forth their young. Their ſummer houſe, which is built of ſticks and leaves, is placed near the top of the tree. They ſometimes migrate in conſiderable numbers. If in their courſe they meet with a river, each of them takes a ſhingle, piece of bark, or the like, and carries it to the water: thus equipped they embark, and erect their tails to the gentle breeze, which ſoon wafts them over in ſafety; but a ſudden flaw of wind ſometimes produces a deſtructive ſhipwreck. The greater part of the males of this ſpecies is found caſtrated. They are found from New-England to Chili and Peru. A grey ſquirrel is found in Virginia nearly twice as large as this; whether it be the ſame, or a different ſpecies, is uncertain.

Red Squirrel.—This is leſs than the grey ſquirrel. It has a red liſt along its back, grey on its ſides, and white under the belly. It differs in ſome reſpects from the common European ſquirrel; but M. de Buffon conſiders it as the ſame ſpecies. Its food is the ſame as that of the grey ſquirrel, except that it ſometimes feeds on the ſeeds of the pine and other evergreens; hence it is ſometimes called the pine ſquirrel, and is found in general farther to the northward than the grey ſquirrel. It ſpends part of its time on trees in queſt of food; but conſiders its hole, under ſome rock or log, as its home.

Striped Squirrel.—This is ſtill leſs than the laſt mentioned; its colour is red; it has a narrow ſtripe of black along its back; at the diſtance of about half an inch on each ſide is a ſtripe of white, bordered with very narrow ſtripes of black; its belly is white. In the males the colours are brighter and better defined than in the female. It is ſometimes called a mouſe ſquirrel and ground ſquirrel, from its forming a burrow in looſe ground. Linnæus confounds it

with a ſtriped mouſe ſquirrel found in the north of Aſia; but that animal is repreſented as in ſome meaſure reſembling the mouſe, whereas this is a genuine ſquirrel. In the ſummer it feeds on apples, peaches, and various kinds of fruit and ſeeds, and for its winter ſtore lays up nuts, acorns and grain. It ſometimes aſcends trees in queſt of food, but always deſcends on the appearance of danger; nor does it feel ſecure but in its hole, a ſtone wall, or ſome covert place. Found in the northern and middle States.

Flying Squirrel.—This is the moſt ſingular of the claſs of ſquirrels. A duplicature of the ſkin connects the fore and hinder legs together; by extending this membrane it is able to leap much farther, and to alight with more ſafety than other ſquirrels. It lives in the holes of trees and feeds on ſeeds. Is found in general from the ſouthern parts of Hudſon's bay to Mexico.

Beſides the above, there are ſeveral other varieties of this genus, ſome peculiar to the whole continent, and ſome to particular parts, from whence they have been named, as the Hudſon's bay ſquirrel, varied ſquirrel of Mexico, Mexican ſquirrel, Braſilian ſquirrel, &c.

Striped Dormouſe.—Of this genus of animals, called ſometimes garden ſquirrels, we believe there is only one ſpecies known in North-America, viz. the ſtriped dormouſe, which is exceeding plenty throughout all the foreſts.

ANIMALS OF THE RAT KIND.

Of this genus of animals America produces various ſpecies, two or three only of which we ſhall notice.

Muſquaſh, or muſk rat of Canada. This animal is about the ſize of a young rabbit; its head is thick and ſhort, reſembling that of a water rat; its hair ſoft and gloſſy; beneath the outward hair there is a thick fine down, very uſeful in the manufacture of hats; it is of a reddiſh brown colour; its breaſt and belly aſh, tinged with red; its tail is long and flat, covered with ſcales; its eyes are large, its ears ſhort and hairy; it has two ſtrong cutting-teeth in each jaw, thoſe of the under jaw are about an inch long, but the upper ones are ſhorter.

This animal is a native of Canada, where it is called the Ondatra.

In many reſpects it very much reſembles the beaver, both in form and manners. It is fond of the water, and ſwims well. At the approach of winter ſeveral families aſſociate together. They build little huts, about two feet in diameter, compoſed of herbs and ruſhes cemented

cemented with clay, forming a dome-like covering: from theſe are ſeveral paſſages, in different directions, by which they go out in queſt of roots and other food. The hunters take them in the ſpring, by opening their holes, and letting in the light ſuddenly upon them. At that time their fleſh is tolerably good, and is frequently eaten, but in the ſummer it acquires a ſcent of muſk, ſo ſtrong as to render it perfectly unpalatable.

Wood Rat.—This is a very curious animal; not half the ſize of a domeſtic rat; of a dark brown or black colour; their tails ſlender and ſhort in proportion, and covered thinly with ſhort hair. They are ſingular with reſpect to their ingenuity and great labour in conſtructing their habitations, which are conical pyramids, about three or four feet high, conſtructed with dry branches, which they collect with great labour and perſeverance, and pile up without any apparent order; yet they are ſo interwoven with one another, that it would take a bear or a wild cat ſome time to pull one of theſe caſtles to pieces, and allow the animals ſufficient time to retreat with their young.

There is likewiſe a ground rat, twice as large as the common rat, which burrows in the ground. *Bartram's Travels.*

Shrew Mouſe.—This is the ſmalleſt of quadrupeds, and holds nearly the ſame place among them as the humming bird does among the feathered race. Their head, which conſtitutes about one third of their whole length, has ſome reſemblance to that of a mole; the ears are wanting; their eyes ſcarcely viſible; the noſe very long, pointed, and furniſhed with long hairs. In other reſpects theſe reſemble the common mouſe. They live in woods, and are ſuppoſed to feed on grain and inſects. Different ſpecies of them are found in Braſil, Mexico, Carolina, New-England, and Hudſon's bay.

Mole.---The Purple Mole is found in Virginia; the Black Mole in New-England; he lives in and about the water: they differ from one another, and both from the European. There are three other ſpecies found about New-York, viz. the Long-tailed, the Radiated, and the Brown; the former is alſo found in the interior of Hudſon's bay.

ANIMALS OF THE MONKEY KIND.

The monkies of America are diſtinguiſhed by M. Buffon by the generic names of Sapajous and Sagoins; they have neither cheek pouches nor calloſities on their buttocks, and they are diſtinguiſhed from each other by characters peculiar to each. The ſapajou is furniſhed

niſhed with a prehenſile tail, the under part of which is generally covered with a ſmooth naked ſkin; the animal can coil it up or extend it at pleaſure, ſuſpend itſelf by its extremity on the branches of trees, or uſe it as a hand to lay hold of any thing it wants. The tails of all the ſagoins, on the contrary, are longer than thoſe of the ſapajous, ſtraight, flaccid, and entirely covered with hair. This difference alone is ſufficient to diſtinguiſh a ſapajou from a ſagoin.

Ouarine, or *Preacher*.—This is the largeſt of all the American monkies, being about the ſize of a large fox; its body is covered with long ſmooth hair, of a ſhining black colour, forming a kind of ruff round the animal's neck; its tail is long, and always twiſted at the end.

Great numbers of theſe monkies inhabit the woods of Braſil and Guiana, and, from the great noiſe they make, are called *Howling Monkies*. Several of them aſſemble together, one placing himſelf on a higher branch, the reſt placing themſelves in a kind of regular order; below him the firſt then begins as though to harangue with a loud tone, which may be heard at a great diſtance; at a ſignal made with his hand, the reſt join in a general chorus, the moſt diſſonant and tremendous that can be conceived; on another ſignal they all ſtop, except the firſt, who finiſhes ſingly, and the aſſembly breaks up.

Theſe monkies are very fierce, and ſo wild and miſchievous, that they can neither be conquered nor tamed. They feed on fruits, grain, herbs, and ſometimes inſects; live in trees, and leap from bough to bough with wonderful agility, catching hold with their hands and tails as they throw themſelves from one branch to another.

There is a variety of this ſpecies of a ferruginous or reddiſh colour, which the Indians call the *Royal*, or *King Monkey*; it is as large and noiſy as the former. This is eaten by the natives, and ſometimes by the Europeans, and deemed excellent food.

Coaita.—This animal is ſomewhat leſs than the ouarine; its body and limbs are long and ſlender, hair black and rough, tail long, and naked on the under ſide near the end. It has a long flat face of a ſwarthy colour, its eyes ſunk in its head, and its ears reſembling human; it has only four fingers on the hands, being deſtitute of the thumb.

It is found in the neighbourhood of Carthagena, in Guiana, Braſil, and Peru. Great numbers aſſociate together; they ſeldom appear on the

1 Coaita, 2 Capuchin Monkey,
3 Weeper, 4 Orange Ditto.

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the ground, but live moſtly in trees, and feed on fruits; when theſe are not to be had, they are ſaid to eat fiſhes, worms and inſects; are extremely dexterous in catching their prey, and make great uſe of their tails in ſeizing it.

They are very lively and active. In paſſing from one tree to another, they ſometimes form a chain, linked to each other by their tails, and ſwing in that manner till the loweſt catches hold of a branch, and draws up the reſt. When fruits are ripe, they are generally fat, and their fleſh is then ſaid to be excellent.

There are many varieties of the coaita, which differ chiefly in colour; ſome are totally black, others brown, and ſome have white hair on the under parts of their body. They are called *Spider Monkies* by Edwards, on account of the length and ſlenderneſs of their legs and tails.

M. Buffon ſuppoſes the *Exquima* to be another variety of this ſpecies. It is nearly of the ſame ſize, but its colour is variegated. The hair on its back is black and yellow, its throat and belly white: its manner of living is the ſame with that of the coaita, and it inhabits the ſame countries.

Sajou, or *Capuchin*.—There are two varieties of this ſpecies, the brown and the grey, which, in other reſpects, are perfectly ſimilar. Their faces are of a fleſh colour, thinly covered with down; tails long, full of hair on the upper ſide, naked below, and prehenſile; hands black and naked; length of the body about twelve inches.

Theſe animals inhabit Guiana, are extremely lively and agile, and their conſtitution ſeems better adapted to the temperate climates of Europe than moſt of the ſapajou kind. M. Buffon mentions a few inſtances of their having been produced in France.

The ſajous are very capricious in their attachments, being fond of particular perſons, and diſcovering the greateſt averſion to others.

Sai, or *Weeper*, inhabits Braſil, is very mild, docile, and timid; of a grave and ſerious aſpect, has an appearance of weeping, and when irritated, makes a plaintive noiſe. It is about fourteen inches long, the tail longer than the body; hair on the back and ſides of a deep brown colour, mixed with red on the lower parts. There is a variety with hair on the throat and breaſt.

Great numbers of theſe creatures aſſemble together, particularly in ſtormy weather, and make a great chattering; they live much in trees which bear a podded fruit as large as beans, on which they principally feed.

Saimiri, or *Orange Monkey*.—This is a moſt beautiful animal, but ſo extremely delicate, that it cannot well bear to be brought from its own climate to one leſs warm and temperate.

It is about the ſize of a ſquirrel; its head is round, eyes remarkably lively and brilliant, ears large, hair on the body ſhort and fine, of a ſhining gold colour, feet orange, its tail is very long; its prehenſile faculty is much weaker than the reſt of the ſapajous, and on that account it may be ſaid to form a ſhade between them and the ſagoins, which have long tails, entirely covered with hair, but of no uſe in ſuſpending their bodies from the branches of trees or other objects.

Mico, or *Fair Monkey*.—This is the moſt beautiful of all this numerous race of animals. Its head is ſmall and round; face and ears of ſo lively a vermilion colour, as to appear the effect of art; its body is covered with long hair, of a bright ſilvery whiteneſs, and uncommon elegance; tail long, and of a ſhining dark cheſnut colour.

It frequents the banks of the river of Amazons, where it was diſcovered by M. Condamaine, who preſerved one alive till almoſt within ſight of the French coaſt, but it died before its arrival.

Oiſtiti, or *Cagvi*.---This is a ſmall animal, its head and body not exceeding ſeven inches in length; its tail is long, buſhy, and, like that of the macauco, marked with alternate rings of black and aſh colour; its face is naked, of a ſwarthy fleſh colour; ears large, and like the human, with two very large tufts of white hairs ſtanding out on each ſide; the body beautifully marked with duſky, aſh-coloured, and reddiſh bars; its nails are ſharp, and its fingers like thoſe of a ſquirrel.

The ouſtiti inhabits Braſil, feeds on fruits, vegetables, inſects, and ſnails, and is fond of fiſh.

Saki.--Sometimes called the *Fox-tailed Monkey*, becauſe its tail, like that of the fox, is covered with long hair. Its body is about ſeventeen inches in length; hair long, of a dark brown colour on the back, lighter on the under ſide; its face is tawny, and covered with a fine ſhort whitiſh down; the forehead and ſides of the face are white; its hands and feet are black, with claws inſtead of nails; is a native of Guiana, where it is called the ſaccawinkee.

Pinche, or *Red-tailed Monkey*.---This is ſomewhat larger than the ouſtiti. It is remarkable in having a great quantity of ſmooth white hair, which falls down from the top of its head on each ſide, forming a curious contraſt with its face, which is black, thinly covered with

MICO. *OISTITI.*

SAKI. *PINCHE.*

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with a fine grey down; its eyes are black and lively; throat black; hair on the back and ſhoulders of a light reddiſh brown colour; breaſt, belly, and legs, white; the tail is long, of a red colour from the rump to the middle, from thence to the end it is black.

The pinche inhabits the woods on the banks of the river of Amazons; is a lively, beautiful little animal; has a ſoft whiſtling voice, reſembling more the chirping of a bird than the cry of a quadruped. It frequently walks with its long tail over its back.

Marikina.—This is by ſome called the *Lion Ape*, from the quantity of hair which ſurrounds its face, falling backwards like a mane; its tail is alſo ſomewhat buſhy at the end; its face is flat, and of a dull purple colour; its hair long, bright, and ſilky, from whence it is called the *Silky Monkey*; it is of a pale yellow colour on the body; the hair round the face of a bright bay, inclining to red; its hands and feet are without hair, and of the ſame colour as the face; its body is ten inches long, tail thirteen.

This creature is a native of Guiana, is very gentle and lively, and ſeems to be more hardy than the other ſagoins: Buffon ſays, that one of them lived at Paris ſeveral years, with no other precaution than keeping it in a warm room during winter.

Tamarin.—This is the ſize of a ſquirrel; its face is naked, of a ſwarthy fleſh colour; its upper lip ſomewhat divided; its ears are very large and erect, from whence it is called the *Great-eared Monkey*; its hair is ſoft, ſhaggy, and of a black colour; hands and feet covered with orange-coloured hair, very fine and ſmooth; its nails long and crooked; tail black, and twice the length of its body.

The tamarin inhabits the hotter parts of South-America; is a lively, pleaſant animal, eaſily tamed, but ſo delicate, that it cannot bear a removal to a leſs temperate climate.

Moſt of the above genus ſeem to be more particularly natives of South-America, but they are likewiſe ſaid to be found on the lower parts of the Miſſiſſippi.

PINNATED QUADRUPEDS.

Walrus, or *Sea-horſe.*—There are ſeveral animals whoſe reſidence is almoſt conſtantly in the water, and which ſeem to partake greatly of the nature of fiſhes, they are nevertheleſs claſſed by naturaliſts under the denomination of quadrupeds; and being perfectly amphibious, living with equal eaſe on the water as on land, may be conſidered as the laſt ſtep in the ſcale of Nature, by which we are conducted

conducted from one great diviſion of the animal world to the other. Of theſe the walrus is the moſt conſiderable; it has a round head; ſmall mouth; very thick lips, covered above and below with pellucid briſtles as thick as a ſtraw; ſmall fiery eyes; two ſmall orifices inſtead of ears; ſhort neck; body thick in the middle, tapering towards the tail; ſkin thick, wrinkled, with ſhort browniſh hairs thinly diſperſed; legs ſhort, five toes on each, all connected by webs, and ſmall nails on each; the hind feet very broad; each leg looſely articulated; the hind legs generally extended on a line with the body; tail very ſhort; length, from noſe to tail, ſometimes eighteen feet, and ten or twelve round in the thickeſt part; the teeth have been ſometimes found of the weight * of twenty pounds each.

They inhabit the coaſt of Spitzbergen, Nova Zembla, Hudſon's bay, and the gulph of St. Lawrence, and the Icy ſea, as far as cape Tſchuktſchi, and the iſlands off it, but does not extend ſouthward as far as the mouth of the Anadyr, nor are any ſeen in the iſlands between Kamtſchatka and America: they are gregarious; in ſome places appear in herds of hundreds; are ſhy animals, and avoid places which are much haunted by mankind; † are very fierce; if wounded in the water, they attempt to ſink the boat, either by riſing under it, or by ſtriking their great teeth into the ſides; roar very loud, and will follow the boat till it gets out of ſight. Numbers of them are often ſeen ſleeping on an iſland of ice; if awakened, fling themſelves with great impetuoſity into the ſea, at which time it is dangerous to approach the ice, leſt they ſhould tumble into the boat and overſet it; do not go upon the land till the coaſt is clear of ice. At particular times, they land in amazing numbers; the moment the firſt gets on ſhore, ſo as to lie dry, it will not ſtir till another comes and forces it forward by beating it with its great teeth; this is ſerved in the ſame manner by the next, and ſo in ſucceſſion till the whole is landed, continuing tumbling over one another, and forcing the foremoſt, for the ſake of quiet, to remove further up.

* Teeth of this ſize are only found on the coaſt of the Icy ſea, where the animals are ſeldom moleſted, and have time to attain their full growth. *Hiſt. Kamtſchatka*, 120.

† In 1608, the crew of an Engliſh veſſel killed on Cherry iſle above nine hundred Walruſes in ſeven hours time; for they lay in heaps, like hogs huddled one upon another. *Marten's Spitzberg.* 181, 182.

They

They bring one, or at moſt two young at a time; feed on ſea herbs and fiſh, alſo on ſhells, which they dig out of the ſand with their teeth; are ſaid alſo to make uſe of their teeth to aſcend rocks or pieces of ice, faſtening them to the cracks, and drawing their bodies up by that means. Beſides mankind, they ſeem to have no other enemy than the white bear, with whom they have terrible combats, but are generally victorious.

They are killed for the ſake of the oil, one animal producing about half a ton.

Seal.—Of this genus there are ſeveral ſpecies, all of which, there is no doubt, are found on ſome part of the coaſt of America.

Whale-tailed Manati.—This animal in nature ſo nearly approaches the cetaceous tribe, that it is merely in conformity to the ſyſtematic writers, that it is continued in this claſs; it ſcarce deſerves the name of a biped; what are called feet are little more than pectoral fins; they ſerve only for ſwimming; they are never uſed to aſſiſt the animal in walking or landing, for it never goes aſhore, nor ever attempts to climb the rocks, like the walrus and ſeal. It brings forth in the water, and, like the whale, ſuckles its young in that element; like the whale, it has no voice, and, like that animal, has an horizontal broad tail in form of a creſcent, without even the rudiments of hind feet.

Inhabits the ſeas about Bering's and the other Aleutian iſlands, which intervene between Kamtſchatka and America, but never appears off Kamtſchatka, unleſs blown aſhore by a tempeſt. Is probably the ſame ſpecies which is found above Mindanao, but is certainly that which inhabits near Rodriguez, vulgarly called Diego Reys, an iſland on the eaſt of Mauritius, or the iſle of France, near which it is likewiſe found.

They live perpetually in the water, and frequent the edges of the ſhores; and in calm weather ſwim in great droves near the mouths of rivers; in the time of flood they come ſo near the land, that a perſon may ſtroke them with his hand; if hurt, they ſwim out to the ſea, but preſently return again. They live in families, one near another; each conſiſts of a male, a female, a half-grown young one, and a very ſmall one. The females oblige the young to ſwim before them, while the other old ones ſurround, and, as it were, guard them on all ſides. If the female is attacked, the male will defend her to the utmoſt, and if ſhe is killed, will follow

her corpſe to the very ſhore, and ſwim for ſome days near the place it has been landed at.

They copulate in the ſpring, in the ſame manner as the human kind, eſpecially in calm weather, towards the evening. The female ſwims gently about; the male purſues, till, tired with wantoning, ſhe flings herſelf on her back, and admits his embraces.* Steller thinks they go with young above a year; it is certain that they bring but one young at a time, which they ſuckle by two teats placed between the breaſts.

They are vaſtly voracious and gluttonous, and feed not only on the fuci that grow in the ſea, but ſuch as are flung on the edges of the ſhore. When they are filled, they fall aſleep on their backs. During their meals, they are ſo intent on their food, that any one may go among them and chuſe which he likes beſt.

Their back and their ſides are generally above water, and as their ſkin is filled with a ſpecies of louſe peculiar to them, numbers of gulls are continually perching on their backs, and picking out the inſects.

They continue in the Kamtſchatkan and American ſeas the whole year; but in winter are very lean, ſo that you may count their ribs. They are taken by harpoons faſtened to a ſtrong cord, and after they are ſtruck, it requires the united force of thirty men to draw them on ſhore. Sometimes, when they are transfixed, they will lay hold of the rocks with their paws, and ſtick ſo faſt as to leave the ſkin behind before they can be forced off. When a Manati is ſtruck, its companions ſwim to its aſſiſtance; ſome will attempt to overturn the boat, by getting under it; others will preſs down the rope, in order to break it; and others will ſtrike at the harpoon with their tails, with a view of getting it out, which they often ſucceed in. They have not any voice, but make a noiſe by hard breathing, like the ſnorting of a horſe.

They are of an enormous ſize; ſome are twenty-eight feet long, and eight thouſand pounds in weight; but if the mindánao ſpecies is the ſame with this, it decreaſes greatly in ſize as it advances ſouthward, for the largeſt which Dampier ſaw there, weighed only ſix hundred pounds. The head, in proportion to the bulk of the ani-

* The leonine and urſine ſeals copulate in the ſame manner, only, after ſporting in the ſea for ſome time, they come on ſhore for that purpoſe.

mal,

mal, is ſmall, oblong, and almoſt ſquare; the noſtrils are filled with ſhort briſtles; the gape, or rictus, is ſmall; the lips are double; near the junction of the two jaws the mouth is full of white tubular briſtles, which ſerve the ſame uſe as the laminæ in whales, to prevent the food running out with the water; the lips are alſo full of briſtles, which ſerve inſtead of teeth to cut the ſtrong roots of the ſea plants, which floating aſhore are a ſign of the vicinity of theſe animals. In the mouth are no teeth, only two flat white bones, one in each jaw, one above, another below, with undulated ſurfaces, which ſerve inſtead of grinders.

The eyes are extremely ſmall, not larger than thoſe of a ſheep; the iris black; it is deſtitute of ears, having only two orifices, ſo minute that a quill will ſcarcely enter them; the tongue is pointed and ſmall; the neck is thick, and its junction with the head ſcarce diſtinguiſhable, and the laſt always hangs down. The circumference of the body near the ſhoulders is twelve feet, about the belly twenty, near the tail only four feet eight; the head thirty-one inches; the neck near ſeven feet; and from theſe meaſurements may be collected the deformity of this animal. Near the ſhoulders are two feet, or rather fins, which are only two feet two inches long, and have neither fingers nor nails, beneath are concave, and covered with hard briſtles; the tail is thick, ſtrong, and horizontal, ending in a ſtiff black fin, and like the ſubſtance of whalebone, and much ſplit in the fore part, and ſlightly forked, but both ends are of equal lengths, like that of a whale.

The ſkin is very thick, black, and full of inequalities, like the bark of oak, and ſo hard as ſcarcely to be cut with an ax, and has no hair on it; beneath the ſkin is a thick blubber, which taſtes like oil of almonds. The fleſh is coarſer than beef, and will not ſoon putrefy. The young ones taſte like veal: the ſkin is uſed for ſhoes, and for covering the ſides of boats.

The Ruſſians call this animal morſkaia korowa, or ſea cow; and kapuſtnik, or eater of herbs.

Manati of Guiana.—The head of this animal hangs downward; the feet are furniſhed with five toes; body almoſt to the tail of an uniform thickneſs; near its junction with that part grows ſuddenly thin; tail flat, and in form of a ſpatula, thickeſt in the middle, growing thinner towards the edges.

Inhabits the rivers and ſea of Guiana; it grows to the length of ſixteen or eighteen feet; is covered with a duſky ſkin with a few

hairs. Thoſe meaſured by Dampier were ten or twelve feet long, their tail twenty inches in length, fourteen in breadth, four or five thick in the middle, two at the edges; the largeſt weighed twelve hundred pounds; but they arrive at far greater magnitude.

Oronoko Manati.—This is the ſpecies to which M. de Buffon has in his ſupplement given the name of *Le petit Lamantia de l'Amerique*, and ſays it is found in the Oronoko, Oyapoc, and the rivers of Amazons. Father Gumilla had one taken in a diſtant lake, near the Oronoko, which was ſo large that twenty-ſeven men could not draw it out of the water: on cutting it open, he found two young ones, which weighed twenty-five pounds a-piece.

We ſuſpect that the manati of the Amazons, &c. never viſit the ſea, but are perpetually reſident in the freſh waters.

Theſe animals abound in certain parts of the eaſtern coaſts and rivers of South-America, about the bay of Honduras, ſome of the greater Antilles, the rivers of Oronoque, and the lakes formed by it; and laſtly, in that of the Amazons, and the Guallaga, the Paſtaça, and moſt of the others which fall into that vaſt river: they are found even a thouſand leagues from its mouth, and ſeem to be ſtopt from making even an higher advance, only by the great cataract, the Pongo of Borja. They ſometimes live in the ſea, and often near the mouth of ſome river, into which they come once or twice in twenty-four hours, for the ſake of brouzing on the marine plants which grow within their reach; they altogether delight more in brackiſh or ſweet water, than in the ſalt; and in ſhallow water near low land, and in places ſecure from ſurges, and where the tides run gently. It is ſaid that at times they frolic and leap to great heights out of the water. Their uſes were very conſiderable to the privateers or buccaneers in the time of Dampier. Their fleſh and fat are white, very ſweet and ſalubrious, and the tail of a young female was particularly eſteemed. A ſuckling was held to be moſt delicious, and eaten roaſted, as were great pieces cut out of the belly of the old animals.

The ſkin cut out of the belly, for that of the back was too thick, was in great requeſt for the purpoſe of faſtening to the ſides of canoes, and forming a place for the inſertion of the oars. The thicker part of the ſkin, cut freſh into lengths of two or three feet, ſerves for whips, and become, when dried, as tough as wood.

Beſides theſe, an animal has been diſcovered on the coaſt of America to which the name of Sea Ape has been given; but it ap-

pears to have been ſeen in only one ſolitary inſtance, and therefore it appears unneceſſary, except in a profeſſed hiſtory of animals, to add any account of it.

WINGED QUADRUPEDS.

Bat.---This ſingular animal is diſtinguiſhed from every other quadruped by being furniſhed with wings, and ſeems to poſſeſs a middle nature between four-footed animals and birds: it is allied to the one by the faculty of flying only, to the other both by its external and internal ſtructure: in each reſpect it has the appearance of an imperfect animal. In walking, its feet ſeem to be entangled with its wings, and it drags its body on the ground with extreme aukwardneſs. Its motions in the air do not ſeem to be performed with eaſe: it raiſes itſelf from the ground with difficulty, and its flight is laboured and ill directed; from whence it is has very ſignificantly been called the *Flitter Mouſe*. There are ſeveral varieties of the bat kind, ſeveral of which are found in different parts of the continent of America.---*See Birds*.

HISTORY OF THE

BIRDS OF AMERICA.

IN the following account of the birds of America, nothing more is attempted than an enumeration of the ſpecies of the different genera found on that continent; the diviſion and order of Mr. Pennant is followed, and deſcriptive characters of each genus, in general, attended to. As it was impoſſible in a work of this kind to enter into a deſcription of the different ſpecies of each genus, we hope the method adopted will prove more acceptable and advantageous than a mere catalogue of either popular or ſyſtematic names.

DIV. I. LAND-FOWL.

ORDER I. RAPACIOUS.

Bill, ſtraight, hooked only at the end; edges cultrated, baſe covered with a thin ſkin.—*Noſtrils*, differing in different ſpecies.—*Tongue*, large and fleſhy.—*Head*, cheeks, chin, and often neck, either naked or covered only with down or ſhort hairs; the neck retractile.—*Claw*, often hanging over the breaſt.—*Legs* and *feet*, covered with great ſcales; the firſt joint of the middle toe connected to that of the outmoſt by a ſtrong membrane.—*Claws*, large, little hooked, and very blunt.—*Inſides* of the wing covered with down.

GEN. 1. VULTUR.

Characters.—*Bill*, ſtraight, blunt at the tip.—*Head*, featherleſs, covered behind with naked ſkin or ſoft down.—*Neck*, retractile.—*Legs*, covered with ſcales.—The firſt joint of the *middle toe* connected to the outermoſt by a ſtrong membrane.

Of this genus there are five ſpecies in America, three of which are found in the United States, and the other two in South-America.

GEN.

GEN. 2. FALCO.

Character.—*Bill*, hooked, furniſhed at its baſe with a ſtrong membrane or *cere*.---*Head* and *neck* covered with feathers.---*Legs* and *feet* covered with ſcales. *Middle toe* connected with the outmoſt by a ſtrong membrane.---*Claws*, long, much hooked, that of the outmoſt toe the leaſt.---*Female* larger than the *male*.

This genus admits of four diviſions, of which there are in America as follows: eagles, ten ſpecies; hawks, fifteen; falcons, thirteen; kites, two; of theſe, ſome are peculiar to South-America, others to the North, and ſome common in both.

GEN. 3. STRIX.

Character.--*Bill*, hooked, without a cere.--*Noſtrils*, oblong.--*Eyes*, very large and protuberant, ſurrounded by a circle of feathers.---*Head*, large, round, and full of feathers.---*Ears*, large and open.---Outermoſt *toe* verſatile.

This genus contains the owls, which are ranged in two diviſions, *the eared*, and *the earleſs*; of the former there are three ſpecies, and of the latter fourteen ſpecies known in America.

ORDER II. PIES.

GEN. 1. LANIUS.

This genus includes a claſs of birds that form the connecting link between the rapacious birds of the preceding order and the pies; they are called Shrieks, or Butcher birds; their *bills* are ſtraight, hooked only at the ends.---*Tongue* jagged at the point.---*Toes* divided at the origin.---And *tail* cuneiform. Of this genus there are fourteen ſpecies known in America and the Weſt-Indies.

GEN. 2. PSITTACUS.

This genus contains the whole race of parrots, parroquets, &c. *Bill*, hooked from the baſe: upper mandible moveable.---*Noſtrils*, round, and placed in the baſe of the bill.---*Tongue*, broad and blunt at the end.---*Head*, large; crown flat.---*Legs*, ſhort.---*Toes*, two backward and two forward. Of this there are nearly fifty ſpecies known in South-America, and we believe only one or two in North-America.

GEN. 3. RAMPHOSTOS.

The character of this genus is---*Bill*, exceeding large, hollow, convex, ſerrated outwards; both mandibles curved at the tip.---*Noſtrils*, ſmall and round, placed cloſe to the head.---*Tongue*, long,

and

and feathered on the edges.---*Feet*, in moſt of the ſpecies, ſcanſory. It contains the Toucans and Motmots; of the former there are nine ſpecies, and of the latter only one; they are ſuppoſed to be peculiar to South-America.

GEN. 4. CROTOPHAGUS.

The characters of this genus are—*Bill*, compreſſed, greatly arched, half oval, thin, cultrated at the top.---*Noſtrils*, round.---*Toes*, two backward and two forward.---Ten feathers in the tail.

The only bird in this genus is the Ani, of which there are only two ſpecies; it is, we believe, peculiar to America.

GEN. 5. CORVUS.

Bill, ſtrong, upper mandible a little convex, edges cultrated.---*Noſtrils*, covered with briſtles, reflected over them.—*Tongue*, divided at the end.—*Toes*, three forward and one backward, the middle joined to the outmoſt as far as the firſt joint. This genus includes the ravens, crows, rooks, jays and magpies, moſt of which occur in every climate. There is one ſpecies of the raven; four of the crow; four of the daw; ſix of the jay; and four of the magpie. Found in America and the Weſt-Indies.

GEN. 6. CORACIAS.

Bill, ſtraight, bending a little towards the end, edges cultrated.—*Noſtrils*, narrow and naked.—*Toes*, three forward, divided to their origin; one backward. This genus contains the Rollers, of which there are two ſpecies found in South-Americh.

GEN. 7. ORIOLUS.

Bill, ſtraight, conic, very ſharp-pointed, edges cultrated, inclining inwards, mandibles of equal length.—*Noſtrils*, ſmall, placed at the baſe of the bill, and partly covered.—*Tongue*, divided at the end.—*Toes*, three forward and one backward; the middle joined near the baſe to the outmoſt one behind. The Oriolus are in general inhabitants of America; there being twenty-ſeven ſpecies enumerated on that continent, out of forty-five, all that are known.*

GEN.

* Of this genus the Baltimore Oriole deſerves particular notice; the head, throat, neck, and upper part of the back of the male, is deſcribed to be black; the leſſer coverts of the wings orange; the greater black, tipt with white; the breaſt, belly, lower part of the back, and coverts of the tail, of a bright orange; the primaries duſky, edged with white; the two middle feathers of the tail black; the lower part of the ſame colour, the remaining part orange; and the legs black. The head and back of the female

GEN. 8. GRACULA.

Bill, convex, knife ſhaped, ſomewhat naked at the baſe.—*Tongue*, entire, ſomewhat enlarged and fleſhy, ſharp at the end.—*Noſtrils*, ſmall, near the baſe of the bill.—*Toes*, three forward, one backward, the middle connected at the baſe to the outmoſt.—*Claws*, hooked and ſharp. Of the Gracle, which form this genus, there are about twelve ſpecies, none of which are found in Europe, and only four or five known in America.

GEN. 9. TROGON.

This genus embraces a claſs of South-American birds, inhabiting Cayenne and Braſil, of which there is only three ſpecies. They have the *bill* ſhort, thick and convex.—*Noſtrils*, covered with thick briſtles.—*Toes*, two backward and two forward.—*Legs*, feathered down to the toes—and the *tail* conſiſting of twelve feathers.

GEN. 10. BUCCO.

The Tamatia, or Barbets, that conſtitute this genus, are likewiſe chiefly South-American birds; on that part of the continent there are ſeven ſpecies found, but none to the North. The *bill* of this bird is ſtrong, ſtraight, bending a little towards the point; baſe, covered with ſtrong briſtles, pointing downwards.—*Noſtrils*, hid in the feathers.—*Toes*, two backward and two forward, divided to their origin.—*Tail*, conſiſting of ten weak feathers.

GEN. 11. CUCULUS.

Of the Cuckoo, which forms this claſs, there are five ſpecies found in North-America, and nine in the South. Characters of this genus are, *bill*, weak, a little bending.—*Noſtrils*, bounded by a ſmall rim.—*Tongue*, ſhort and pointed.—*Toes*, two forward and two backward.—*Tail*, cuneated, conſiſting of ten ſoft feathers.

male is orange, edged with pale brown; the coverts of the wings of the ſame colour, marked with a ſingle bar of white; the under ſide of the body and coverts of the tail yellow; the tail duſky, edged with yellow. The length both of the male and female is ſeven inches. This bird ſuſpends its neſt to the horizontal forks of the tulip and poplar trees, formed of the filaments of ſome tough plants, curiouſly woven, mixed with wool, and lined with hairs. It is of a pear ſhape, open at top, with a hole on the ſide through which the young diſcharge their excrements, and are fed. In ſome parts of North-America, this ſpecies, from its brilliant colour, is called the Fiery Hangneſt. It is named the Baltimore bird from its colours, reſembling thoſe in the arms of the late Lord Baltimore, whoſe family were proprietors of Maryland.

GEN. 12. PICUS.

The characters of this genus are—*Bill*, ſtraight, ſtrong, angular, and cuncated at the end.—*Noſtrils*, covered with briſtles, and reflected down.—*Tongue*, very long, ſlender, cylindric, bony, hard, jagged at the end, miſſile.—*Toes*, two forward and two backward.—*Tail*, conſiſting of ten hard, ſtiff, ſharp-pointed feathers. This genus is formed of the Woodpeckers, which may be divided into three general claſſes, green, black, and variegated or ſpotted; of the green Woodpecker, eleven ſpecies have been found in America; of the black, ſix; and of the variegated, twenty-one; beſides two ſpecies of a ſmall bird called Woodpecker Creepers, the *Les Pic Grimpereaux* of Buff. Theſe latter might perhaps be with more propriety claſſed in the genus Yunx.

GEN. 13. ALCEDO.

Bill, long, ſtrong, ſtraight, and ſharp pointed.—*Noſtrils*, ſmall, and hid in the feathers.—*Tongue*, ſhort, broad, ſharp pointed.—*Legs*, ſhort, three toes forward, one backward, three lower joints of the middle toe joined cloſely to thoſe of the outmoſt. This genus includes the King Fiſhers, which M. Buffon divides into three claſſes, the Great King Fiſher, of which there are five ſpecies found in America; the Middle King Fiſher, of which there are likewiſe five ſpecies; and the Leaſt King Fiſher, of which we believe only one ſpecies has been found on the new continent.

GEN. 14. GALBULA.

Of the Jacamars, which conſtitute this genus, we believe there are only three ſpecies known, and all found in South-America; they have been conſidered by many as a ſpecies of the King Fiſher, and therefore claſſed by Linnæus *Alcedo Galbula*. The principal difference in character is in the *legs* being feathered before to the toes, and, the *toes* being diſpoſed, two backward and two forward.

GEN. 15. SITTA.

The characters of this genus are—*Bill*, ſtraight, on the lower mandible a ſmall angle.—*Noſtrils*, ſmall, covered with feathers reflected over them.—*Tongue*, ſhort, horny at the edge, and jagged.—*Toes*, three forward, and one backward, the middle toe joined cloſely at the baſe to both the outmoſt.—*Back toe* as large as the middle one. The chief birds which form this genus are the Nuthatches, of which there are five ſpecies found in America, two of which are common in the United States.

GEN.

GEN. 16. TODUS.

Bill, thin, depreſſed, broad, baſe beſet with briſtles.—*Noſtrils*, ſmall.—*Toes*, three forward, one backward, connected like thoſe of the King Fiſher. This genus contains the Todies, of which there are eight or nine ſpecies known, all natives of the warm parts of America, or the Weſt-India iſlands.

GEN. 17. MEROPS.

The *bill* of this genus is quadrangular, a little incurvated, ſharp pointed.—*Noſtrils*, ſmall, placed near the baſe.—*Tongue*, ſlender.—*Toes*, three forward and one backward, the three lower joints of the middle toe cloſely joined to thoſe of the outmoſt. This genus contains the Bee Eater, of which five or ſix ſpecies have been found in America.

GEN. 18. UPUPA.

The character of this genus is—*Bill*, arched, long, ſlender, convex, ſomewhat blunt and compreſſed.—*Noſtrils*, minute, ſituated at the baſe of the bill.—*Tongue*, obtuſe, entire, triangular, and ſhort.—*Toes*, three forward and one backward, middle toe cloſely united at the baſe to the outmoſt. This genus contains the Hoopoes and the Promerops, but there are only two ſpecies of the latter found in America, and theſe in the ſouthern parts.

GEN. 19. CERTHIA.

Characters of this genus are—*Bills*, very ſlender, weak, and incurvated—*Noſtrils*, ſmall.—*Tongue*, not ſo long as the bill, hard, and ſharp at the point.—*Toes*, three forward and one backward, back toe large.—*Claws*, long and hooked. This genus contains the birds commonly called Creepers, of which there are twenty ſpecies known on the American continent.

GEN. 20. TROCHILUS.

Bill, ſlender and weak; in ſome ſtraight, in others incurvated.—*Noſtrils*, minute.—*Tongue*, very long, formed of two conjoined cylindric tubes, miſſile.—*Toes*, three forward, one backward,—*Tail* conſiſts of ten feathers.

This genus comprehends the various Humming Birds, or Honey Suckers, which form a numerous claſs, not leſs than fifty-ſix ſpecies are found in the different parts of the new continent.

ORDER III. GALLINACEOUS.

Heavy bodies, ſhort wings, very convex; ſtrong, arched, ſhort bills: the upper mandible ſhutting over the edges of the lower.

The fleſh delicate and of excellent nutriment; ſtrong legs; toes joined at the baſe, as far as the firſt joint, by a ſtrong membrane. Claws broad, formed for ſcratching up the ground. More than twelve feathers in the tail.

Granivorous, ſeminivorous, inſectivorous, ſwift runners, of ſhort flight; often polygamous, very prolific, lay their eggs on the bare ground. Sonorous, querelous, and pugnacious.

Or, with bills ſlightly convex; granivorous, ſeminivorous, inſectivorous; long legs, naked above the knees: the genus that connects the land and the water-fowl. Agreeing with the cloven-footed water-fowl in the length and nakedneſs of the legs, and the fewneſs of its eggs: diſagreeing in place, food, and form of bill, and number of feathers in the tail.

GEN. 1. PHASIANUS.

This genus includes the cock and the pheaſants; the former are domeſticated in all the ſettled parts of America; of the latter there are eight ſpecies known on the continent, all natives of South-America.

Characters of the pheaſant are---*Bill*, convex, ſhort and ſtrong.---*Noſtrils*, ſmall.---*Tail*, bending downwards.

GEN. 2. MELAGRIS.

This genus contains the turkey, of which but one ſpecies is known, and that, though domeſticated in moſt countries, is a native of North-America.---*Bill*, convex, ſhort and ſtrong.---*Noſtrils*, open, pointed at one end, lodged in a membrane.---*Tongue*, ſloped on both ſides toward the end and pointed.---*Head* and *Neck*, covered with a naked tuberoſe fleſh, with a long fleſhy appendage hanging from the baſe of the upper mandible.---*Tail*, broad, conſiſting of eighteen feathers extenſible.

GEN. 3. CRAX.

The curaſſo forms this genus as well as the PENELOPE. The characters are---*Bill*, convex, ſtrong and thick, the baſe covered with a cere often mounted with a large nob.---*Noſtrils*, ſmall, lodged in the cere.---*Head*, ſometimes adorned with a creſt of feathers curling forwards.---*Tail*, large and ſtraight. There are four ſpecies of this genus, and three of the penelope found in South-America. The moſt eſſential difference in the two genuſes is, that the *Bill* in thoſe of the penelope is naked at the baſe.

GEN.

GEN. 4. TETRAO.

This genus includes three ſubdiviſions: 1. The grous and ptarmigans.---*Bill*, convex, ſtrong and ſhort; a naked ſcarlet ſkin above each eye.---*Noſtrils*, ſmall and hid in the feathers.---*Tongue*, pointed.---*Legs*, feathered to the toes. Of theſe there are ſeven ſpecies, found in the coldeſt parts of North-America.

2. The partridges and quails; theſe have no naked ſkin above the eyes.---The *Noſtrils* are covered with a callous prominent rim; and the *Legs* naked, with the exception of two ſpecies. Of theſe there are eight ſpecies found in the temperate and warm parts of America.

3. The tinamous, which are peculiar to South-America, and of which five ſpecies are known. Theſe birds reſemble the pheaſants in their habits.---*Bill*, long and blunt at the tip.---*Noſtrils*, placed in the middle with a very wide gap.---*Throat*, ſprinkled with feathers.---*Tail*, very ſhort.---*Hind Toe*, curtailed and uſeleſs for running.

GEN. 5. PSOPHIA.

This genus includes two ſpecies of a bird called the trumpeter, one of which is found in Africa, and one in South-America; the latter is called the agmi or golden-breaſted trumpeter, of which there is a beautiful ſpecimen in the Leverian Muſeum. Character of this genus---*Bill*, ſhort, upper mandible a little convex---*Noſtrils*, oblong, ſunk and pervious.---*Tongue*, cartilaginous, flat, torn or fringed at the end.---*Legs*, naked a little above the knees.---*Toes*, three before and one behind, with a round protuberance beneath the hind toe, which is at a ſmall diſtance from the ground.

ORDER IV. COLUMBINE.

Bill, weak, ſlender, ſtraight at the baſe, with a ſoft protuberant ſubſtance, in which the noſtrils are lodged.—*Tongue*, entire.—*Legs*, ſhort and red.—*Toes*, divided to the origin. Swift and diſtant flight, walking pace. Plaintive note, or *cooing*, peculiar to the order. The male inflates or ſwells up its breaſt in courtſhip. Female lays but two eggs at a time. Male and female ſit alternately, and feed their young, ejecting the meat out of their ſtomachs into the mouths of the neſtlings. Granivorous, ſeminivorous. The neſt ſimple, in trees, or holes of rocks, or walls.

GEN. 1. COLUMBIA.

There is only one genus of this order; it is therefore needleſs to repeat the characters; it includes the pigeons and turtles, of which there are known in different parts of America twelve ſpecies.

ORDER V. PASSERINE.

Bodies, from the ſize of a thruſh to that of the golden-creſted wren. The enliveners of the woods and fields; ſprightly and much in motion; their neſts very artificial; monogamous, baccivorous, granivorous, ſeminivorous, inſectivorous; their uſual pace hopping, of a few running. Short flyers, except on their migrations only. All have three toes before, one behind.

GEN. 1. STURNUS.

Bill, ſtraight, depreſſed.—*Noſtrils*, guarded above by a prominent rim.—*Tongue*, hard and cloven.—*Toes*, middle toe joined to the outmoſt as far as the firſt joint. The ſtares conſtitute this genus, of which ſix ſpecies only are found in America.

GEN. 2. TURDUS.

Bill, ſtraight, obtuſely corinated at top, bending a little at the point, and ſlightly notched near the end of the upper mandible.—*Noſtrils*, oval and naked.—*Tongue*, ſlightly jagged at the end.—*Toes*, the middle toe joined to the outmoſt as far as the firſt joint.—*Back toe*, very large. This genus includes the thruſhes and blackbirds, of which there are twenty-eight ſpecies known in America. To this genus we muſt alſo aſſign a race of birds chiefly found in South-America, called ANTERS, on account of their feeding on that inſect; they are deſignated American and nightingale anters; of the former there are eight ſpecies known, beſide varieties, of the latter only two. Latham conſiders the whole as different ſpecies of the thruſh, and Gmelin is evidently of the ſame opinion, by ranging them in this genus.

GEN. 3. AMPELIS.

The character of this genus is—*Bill*, ſtraight, a little convex above and bending towards the point; near the end of the upper mandible a ſmall notch on each ſide.—*Noſtrils*, hid in briſtles.—*Middle toe*, cloſely connected at the baſe to the outmoſt. This genus comprehends the chatterers or cotingas, of which there are ten ſpecies known in America.

GEN. 4. LOXIA.

The principal characters of this genus are—*Bill*, conically bunched at the baſe of the front rounded towards the head, under mandible inflected in its natural margin.—*Noſtrils*, placed in the baſe of the bill, minute and rounded.—*Tongue*, entire.

The

The birds in America of this genus are the groſbeaks, croſsbills, and bulfinches; of the two former there are about twenty ſpecies, and of the latter five, known upon the American continent.

GEN. 5. EMBERIZA.

The characters of this genus which includes the buntings are—*Bill*, ſtrong and conic, the ſides of each mandible bending inwards; in the roof of the upper a hard knob, of uſe to break and comminute hard ſeeds. There are ſixteen ſpecies of this bird known in America.

GEN. 6. TANGARA.

The tangares which form this genus are almoſt all of them natives of America; there are only forty-ſix ſpecies known, forty-three of which have been found on that continent. The characters are—*Bill*, conoid, a little inclining towards the point, upper mandible ſlightly ridged and notched at the end.

GEN. 7. FRINGILLA.

This extenſive and multifarious genus includes the finches, canaries, ſiſkins, linnets and ſparrows, all of which, the canaries excepted, are found in America, to the amount of near ſixty ſpecies: the diſtinguiſhing character of this genus is the *Bill*, perfectly conic, ſlender towards the end, and very ſharp pointed.

GEN. 8. PHYTOTOMA.

There is only one ſpecies of this genus known, which is the *rara* of South-America. Its diſtinguiſhing characters are—*Bill*, conical, ſtraight and ſerrated.—*Noſtrils*, oval.—*Tongue*, ſhort and blunt; it ſcreams with a raucous interrupted voice, crops and tears up the tender plants, and makes moſt deſtructive viſits to gardens.

GEN. 9. MUSCICAPA.

The characters of this genus are—*Bill*, flatted at the baſe, almoſt triangular, notched at the end of the upper mandible, and beſet with briſtles.—*Toes*, divided as far as their origin. The fly-catchers conſtitute this genus, of which thirty-nine ſpecies are known in America.

GEN. 10. ALAUDA.

Bill, ſhort, ſlender, bending a little towards the end, ſharp pointed.—*Noſtrils*, covered with feathers and briſtles.—*Tongue*, cloven at the end.—*Toes*, divided to the origin.—*Claw* of the back toe very long. This genus is formed of the larks, of which there are, we believe, only ſix ſpecies yet found in America.

GEN.

GEN. 11. MOTACILIA.

The characters of this genus are—*Bill*, awl-ſhaped, ſtraight, the mandibles nearly equal.—*Noſtrils*, nearly oval.—*Tongue*, jagged and notched. The birds found in America which are included in this genus are, the wagtail two ſpecies; the warblers and wrens eighteen ſpecies; the fauvette or petty chaps five ſpecies; the fig-eaters twenty-eight ſpecies; the pitpits five ſpecies; the red ſtart, yellow neck worm-eater, middle bill, Guiana red tail, &c. one or two ſpecies each.

GEN. 12. PIPRA.

This genus includes the manakins, of which there are known about twenty-ſix ſpecies, moſt of them natives of the hot parts of America. Characters—*Bill*, ſhort, ſtrong and hard, ſlightly incurvated.—*Noſtrils*, naked.—*Toes*, the middle cloſely united with the outmoſt as far as the third joint.—*Tail*, ſhort.

GEN. 13. PARUS.

Characters—*Bill*, ſtraight, a little compreſſed, ſtrong, hard, and ſharp-pointed.—*Noſtrils*, round and covered with briſtles reflected over them.—*Tongue*, as if cut off at the end, and terminated by three or four briſtles.—*Toes*, divided to their origin; back toe very large and ſtrong. This genus is formed of the titmice, a remarkable prolific race, laying from eighteen to twenty eggs at an hatch. There appears to be about ſixteen ſpecies known in America.

GEN. 14. HIRUNDO.

The characters of this genus are—*Bill*, ſhort, broad at the baſe, ſmall at the point, and a little bending.—*Noſtrils*, open.—*Tongue*, ſhort, broad and cloven.—*Legs*, ſhort.—*Tail*, forked.—*Wings*, long. It includes the ſwallows, martins and ſwifts, of which there are eleven ſpecies known in America.

GEN. 15. CAPRIMULGUS.

Bill, ſhort, hooked at the end, and ſlightly notched near the point.—*Noſtrils*, tubular and a little prominent.—*Mouth*, vaſtly wide; on the edges of the upper part, between the bill and eyes, ſeven ſtiff briſtles.—*Tongue*, ſmall, entire at the end.—*Legs*, ſhort, feathered before as low as the toes.—*Toes*, joined by a ſtrong membrane as far as the firſt joint.—*Claw* of the middle toe broad-edged and ſerrated.—*Tail* conſiſts of ten feathers, not forked. This genus includes the goat ſuckers, forming fifteen ſpecies, fourteen of which, according to ſome, are natives of America, according to others, are nine only.

ORDER

ORDER VI. STRUTHIOUS.

Very great and heavy bodies. Wings imperfect; very ſmall, and uſeleſs for flight, but aſſiſtant in running. Fleſh coarſe and hard of digeſtion.

Struthious is a new coined word to expreſs this order; for theſe birds could not be reduced to any of the Linnæan diviſions.

This order contains but two genera, the dodo and the oſtrich; of the firſt none have been found in America.

GEN. STRUTHIO.

The characters of this genus are---*Bill*, ſmall, ſloping, and a little depreſſed.---*Wings*, ſmall, unfit for flight.---*Legs*, long, ſtrong, and naked above the knees. It includes the oſtrich tribe, being four ſpecies, one only of which, the touyou, or grey caſowary, is found in America; it is ſix feet high, and in its habits, &c. is in many reſpects ſimilar to the oſtrich, to which, however, it is much inferior.

DIV. II. WATER-FOWL.

For the moſt part migratory, ſhifting from climate to climate, from place to place, in order to lay their eggs, and bring up their young in full ſecurity; the thinly inhabited north is their principal breeding place; returning at ſtated periods, and, in general, yielding to mankind delicious and wholeſome nutriment. All the cloven-footed, or mere waders, lay their eggs on the ground; thoſe with pinnated feet form large neſts, either in the water or near it. From the firſt we muſt except the heron and the night-heron, which build in trees.

All the web-footed fowl either lay their eggs on the ground, or on the ſhelves of lofty cliffs; and none perch, except the corvorant, ſhugg, and one or two ſpecies of ducks.

All the cloven-footed water fowl have long necks and long legs, naked above the knees, for the convenience of wading in water in ſearch of their prey. Thoſe that prey on fiſh have ſtrong bills; thoſe that ſearch for minute inſects, or worms that lurk in mud, have

ſlender weak bills, and olfactory nerves of moſt exquiſite ſenſe; for their food is out of ſight.

As the name implies, their toes are divided, ſome to their origin; others have, between the middle and outmoſt toe, a ſmall membrane as far as the firſt joint. Others have both the exterior toes connected to the middlemoſt in the ſame manner; and, in a few, thoſe webs reach as far as the ſecond joint; and ſuch are called *Semipalmati*.

Of the web-footed fowl, the *Flamingo*, the *Avoſetta* and *Courier*, partake of the nature of both the cloven and web-footed orders; having webbed feet, long legs, naked above the knees, and long necks. The other web-footed water-fowl being very much on the element, have ſhort legs, placed far behind, and long necks; and, when on land (by reaſon of the ſituation of their legs) an aukward waddling gait.

The make of the cloven-footed water-fowl is light, both as to ſkin and bones; that of the web-footed ſtrong.

ORDER I. CLOVEN-FOOTED.

GEN. 1. PLATELEA.

The bird which conſtitutes this genus is the Spoonbill, of which, according to Linnæus and Briſſon, there are three ſpecies; but M. Buffon contends that there is only one, and that the other two are varieties: whether varieties or different ſpecies, two out of the three are found in South-America and the Weſt-Indies.---The *Bill* is long, broad and thin, the end widening into a form like the bowl of a ſpoon, rather round at the end.---*Noſtrils*, ſmall, placed near the baſe.---*Tongue*, ſmall and pointed.---*Feet*, ſemipalmated.

GEN. 2. PALAMEDEA.

The characters of this genus are---*Bill*, bending down at the point, with a horn or with a tuft of feathers erect near the baſe of the bill ---*Noſtrils*, oval.---*Toes*, divided almoſt to their origin with a very ſmall membrane between the bottoms of each. The bird which conſtitutes this genus is the ſcreamer, of which there is only two ſpecies, found in South-America. The horned ſcreamer has likewiſe on each wing two long ſpurs; the horn on its head is three or four inches long, and two or three lines in diameter at the baſe: of the ſpurs on the wings, which project forward, and are the apophyſes

HOOPING CRANE

of the metacarpal bone, riſing from the anterior part of theſe extremities, the upper ſpur is largeſt, of a triangular form, two inches long, and nine lines broad at the baſe, ſomewhat curved, and terminating in a point; the lower ſpur is only four lines long, and of the ſame breadth at its origin.

GEN. 3. MYCTERIA.

Of the Jabirou, which forms this genus, only one ſpecies is known; it is an inhabitant of South-America.---*Bill*, long and large, both mandibles bending upwards, the upper triangular.---*Noſtrils*, ſmall: according to Marcgrave, no tongue.---*Toes*, divided. The bird is as large as a ſwan, the neck thick, and the bill in general meaſures about thirteen inches.

GEN. 4. CANCROMA.

Bill, broad, flat, with a keel along the middle, like a boat reverſed. ---*Noſtrils*, ſmall, lodged in a furrow.---*Toes*, divided. The bird forming this genus is the Boatbill, a bird approaching by its manners the heron tribe. Linnæus mentions two ſpecies, but it appears there is only one and two varieties; it is a native of South-America.

GEN. 5. ARDEA.

The characters of this genus are---*Bill*, ſtraight, ſharp, long, flattiſh, with a furrow extending from the noſtrils to the tip.---*Noſtrils*, linear.---*Tongue*, ſharp.---*Feet*, four-toed. This genus contains, the herons, ſtorks, cranes and bitterns: they are ranged in five ſubdiviſions; the crowned, whoſe bill is ſcarcely longer than the head; the cranes, whoſe head is bald; the ſtorks, whoſe orbits are naked; the herons, whoſe mid toe is ſerrated inwards; and thoſe which have the bill gaping in the middle. Of the ſtorks there are two ſpecies found in America, and two of the crane; a figure of one of which, the *hooping crane*, we have given.* Of the herons thirty-ſeven

* It is as tall as our largeſt cranes, but of a ſtronger and thicker make, its bill longer, its head bigger; its neck and legs not ſo ſlender: all the plumage is white, except the great quills of the wings, which are black, and the head, which is brown; the crown is callous and covered with black hairs, ſtraggling and delicate, under which the reddiſh ſkin appears naked; a ſimilar ſkin covers the cheeks: the tuft of looſe feathers in the tail is flat and pendent: the bill is furrowed above, and indented at the edges near the tip; it is brown and ſix inches long. Cateſby has deſcribed this bird from an entire ſkin given him by an Indian, who told him that theſe birds frequent, in great numbers, the lower parts of the rivers near the ſea in the beginning of ſpring,

ſeven ſpecies are known on that continent, and nine ſpecies of the bittern.

GEN. 6. TANTALUS.

The bird which forms this genus is the Ibis, of which two ſpecies only are found on the new continent, and both in the ſouthern part. Characters---*Bill*, long, thick at the baſe, wholly incurvated.---*Eyes*, lodged in the baſe.—*Face*, naked.—*Noſtrils*, linear.—*Tongue*, ſhort and broad.—*Toes*, connected at the baſe by a membrane.

GEN. 7. SCOLOPAX.

This genus contains a variety of ſpecies, known by the names of Curlews, Whimbrels, Snipes, Woodcocks, Godwits, Red Shanks, Green Shanks and Yellow Shanks. They may all, however, be ranged under two names, Curlews and Snipes; of the former (the characters of which are—*Bill*, long, ſlender and incurvated.—*Face*, covered with feathers.—*Noſtrils*, longitudinal near the baſe.---*Tongue*, ſhort and ſharp pointed.—*Toes*, connected together as far as the firſt joint by a ſtrong membrane) there are eight ſpecies in America; of the latter nineteen ſpecies. Characters—*Bill*, long, ſlender, ſtraight and weak.—*Noſtrils*, linear, lodged in a furrow.—*Tongue*, pointed and ſlender.---*Toes*, divided or very ſlightly connected; back toe very ſmall.

ſpring, and return to the mountains in ſummer. "This fact," ſays Cateſby, "has been ſince confirmed by a white, who informed me, that theſe cranes are very noiſy, and are ſeen in the Savannas at the mouth of the Altamaha, and other rivers near St. Auguſtine in Florida, and alſo in Carolina, but that they are never found further north."

Yet it is certain that they advance into the higher latitudes; for the ſame white cranes are found in Virginia, in Canada, and even in Hudſon's bay, as Edwards remarks.—The ſpecific character of the hooping crane, *Ardea Americana*, is, "Its top, its nape and its temples, are naked and papillous; its front, its nape, and its primary wing quills are black; its body is white: the extreme length is five feet ſeven inches." We extract the following paſſage relating to theſe birds from Mr. Pennant's Arctic Zoology: "They make a remarkable hooping noiſe; this makes me imagine theſe to have been the birds, whoſe clamour Captain Philip Amidas (the firſt Engliſhman who ever ſet foot on North-America) ſo graphically deſcribes, on his landing on the iſle of Wokokou, off the coaſt of North-Carolina. 'When,' ſays he, 'ſuch a flock of cranes (the moſt part white) aroſe under us with ſuch a cry, redoubled by many echoes, as if an army of men had ſhouted together.' This was in the month of July, which proves, that in thoſe early days this ſpecies bred in the then deſert parts of the ſouthern provinces, till driven away by population, as was the caſe with the common crane in England, which abounded in our undrained fens till cultivation forced them entirely to quit our kingdom." Vol. ii. p. 442.

GEN.

GEN. 8. TRINGA.

The birds founds in America in this genus are known by ſeveral popular names, as the Turnſtone, Knot, Lapwing, Purres, Sandpipers, &c. They may almoſt all be claſſed under the name Sandpiper, amounting in the whole to about eleven ſpecies. Characters---*Bill*, ſtraight, ſlender, about an inch and a half long.---*Noſtrils*, ſmall.---*Tongue*, ſlender.---*Toes*, divided, generally the two outmoſt connected at bottom by a ſmall membrane.

GEN. 9. CHARADRIUS.

Of the Plover, which conſtitutes this genus, there are ten known ſpecies in America.---Characters---*Bill*, ſtraight, ſhort as the head. ---*Noſtrils*, linear; wants the back toe.

GEN. 10. HEMATOPUS.

A ſingle ſpecies conſtitutes this genus; it is called the Oyſter Catcher; common to the old and new continents.---Its *Bill* is long, compreſſed, and the end cuneated. ---*Noſtrils*, linear.---*Tongue*, ſcarce one-third of the length of the bill.---*Toes*, only three, the middle one joined to the exterior by a ſtrong membrane; by the help of the bill raiſes limpets from the rocks, and opens oyſters, on which it feeds.

GEN. 11. PARRA.

The Jacana's conſtitute this genus, of which ten ſpecies are found in various parts of South-America, chiefly in Braſil.---The *Bill* is ſlender, ſharp-pointed, baſe carunculated.---*Noſtrils*, ſhort, ſubovated, placed in the middle of the bill.---*Wings*, armed on the front joint with a ſharp ſhort ſpur.---*Toes*, long, four on each foot, armed with very long and ſhort ſharp-pointed claws, from which circumſtance it has by ſome been called the Surgeon.

GEN. 12. RALLUS.

Bill, ſlender, a little compreſſed and ſlightly incurvated.---*Noſtrils*, ſmall.---*Tongue*, rough at the end.---*Body*, much compreſſed.---*Tail*, very ſhort. Of the rails, which form this genus, there are ſeven ſpecies found on the new continent.

GEN. 13. FULICA.

The Gallinule or Water-hen forms this genus, of which ſeven ſpecies are found in different parts of the new continent.---The *Bill* of this bird is thick at the baſe ſloping to the point; the upper mandible reaching far up the forehead, and not carneous.---*Body*, compreſſed.---*Wings*, ſhort and concave.---*Toes*, long and divided to the

origin.

origin.---*Tail*, ſhort, about the ſize of a common pullet ſix months old.

ORDER II. WITH PINNATED FEET.

This order contains only the Phalarope, the Coot and the Glebe.

The PHALAROPE. This bird is claſſed by Linnæus in the tringa genus; but Briſſon forms a new genus, under the name of Phalaropus, from the ſcallops on its toes. There are three ſpecies of it found in America.---Characters---*Bill*, ſtraight and ſlender.---*Noſtrils*, minute.---*Body* and *Legs* in every reſpect like the ſandpiper.---*Toes*, furniſhed with ſcalloped membranes.

The COOT. This bird is found in America as well as in Europe; it frequents ponds and lakes, and may be conſidered as the beginning of the extenſive tribe of *true* aquatic birds, as it is almoſt conſtantly on the water.---Its *Bill* is ſhort, ſtrong, thick at the baſe, ſloping to the end, the baſe of the upper mandible riſing far up the forehead, both mandibles of equal length.---*Noſtrils*, inclining to oval, narrow and ſhort.---*Body*, compreſſed.---*Wings*, ſhort.---*Tail*, ſhort.---*Toes*, long, furniſhed with broad ſcalloped membranes. The coot is claſſed by Linnæus in the fulica of the preceding order, but the ſcalloped membranes of its feet certainly removes it from that genus, however it may agree in other reſpects.

The GLEBE. The *Bill* of this bird is ſtrong, ſlender and ſharp-pointed.---*Noſtrils*, linear.---*Tongue*, ſlightly cloven at the end.---*Body*, depreſſed.---*Feathers*, thick-ſet, compact, very ſmooth and gloſſy.---No tail.---*Wings*, ſhort.---*Legs*, placed very far behind, very thin, or much compreſſed, doubly ſerrated behind.---*Toes*, furniſhed on each ſide with a broad plain membrane. Linnæus has claſſed theſe birds with the web-footed, by the name of Colymbri; but Briſſon has ſeparated them, and from the make of their feet, they could not with propriety be claſſed with them. The Glebes are divided into two claſſes, the greater and the cheſnut or caſtageneux, of each of which there are three ſpecies on the new continent.

ORDER III. WEB-FOOTED.

GEN. I. RECURVIROSTRA.

This genus contains the Avoſets, of which there are but two ſpecies, one of which is found in America. The legs of the avoſet, like the flamingo, contrary to moſt of the web-footed birds, are very long: it has likewiſe another ſingular character, viz. the inverſion of its bill, which is bent into the arc of a circle; the ſubſtance

of

AVOSET

of the *bill* is ſoft and almoſt membranous at its tip.—*Head*, *neck*, and upper part of the *body*, of a pale buff colour; the reſt of the lower part of the body, white.—*Back* and *primaries* black; leſſer coverts white, greater black; beneath which is a long tranſverſe bar of white.—*Legs*, duſky colour.—*Feet*, ſemipalmated, the webs bordering on the ſides of the toes for a conſiderable way. It is a native of North-America, and Mr. Pennant imagines they are ſometimes found entirely white.

GEN. 2. PHOENICOPTERUS.

This genus includes but one ſpecies, the Flammant or Flamingo: —*Bill*, thick, large, bending in the middle, forming a ſharp angle, the higher part of the upper part carinated, the lower compreſſed; the edges of the upper mandible ſharply denticulated, of the lower tranſverſely fulcated.—*Noſtrils*, covered above with a thin plate, pervious, linearly longitudinal.—*Tongue*, cartilaginous and pointed at the end; the middle muſcular, baſe glandular, on the upper part aculated.—*Neck*, very long.—*Head*, large.—*Legs* and *thighs* of a great length.—*Feet*, webbed, the webs extending as far as the claws, but are deeply ſemilunated.—*Back toe*, very ſmall. When this bird has attained its full growth, it is not heavier than a wild duck, and is yet five feet high.*

GEN. 3. DIOMEDA.

Characters—*Bill*, ſtrong, bending in the middle, and hooked at the end of the upper mandible; that of the lower mandible abrupt, and the lower part inclining downwards.—*Noſtrils*, opening forward, and covered with a large convex guard.—No back toe. The birds in this genus are the Albatroſſes. Theſe birds, which in the bulk of their bodies are ſuperior to all the known ſpecies of water-fowl, inhabit the ſhores, iſlands and ſeas within the tropics, along the coaſt of Chili, and the extremities of America, but it never has been ſeen in the ſeas of the northern hemiſphere.

GEN. 4. ALCA.

The Auks form this genus, of which there are four ſpecies found about the new continent. Characters—*Bill*, thick, ſtrong, convex, and compreſſed.—*Noſtrils*, linear, placed near the edge of the mandible.—*Tongue*, almoſt as long as the bill.—No back toe.—Black on the *back* and white beneath.

* Cateſby.

GEN.

GEN. 5. COLYMBUS.

The web-footed birds in this genus, that can be conſidered as belonging to America, are only one ſpecies of the Guillemot and two of the Diver. The characters of the former are---*Bill*, ſlender, ſtrong and pointed, upper mandible ſlightly bending towards the end; baſe covered with ſhort ſoft feathers.—*Noſtrils*, lodged in a hollow near the baſe.—*Tongue*, ſlender, almoſt the length of the bill.—No back toe.---*Colour*, in general, black on the back, and white on the breaſt. Its weight is about twenty ounces.

The *bill* of the diver is ſtrong and pointed, upper mandible the longeſt, edges of each bending inwards.---*Noſtrils*, linear, upper part divided by a ſmall cutaneous appendage.---*Tongue*, long and pointed, ſerrated at each ſide near the baſe.---*Legs*, very thin and flat.---*Toes*, the exterior the longeſt, back toe ſmall, joined to the interior by a ſmall membrane.---*Tail*, ſhort. This bird is about the ſize of a gooſe.

GEN. 6. RYNCHOPS.

This genus contains only a ſingle ſpecies and a variety, both natives of North-America: it is ſometimes called the Skimmer, from the manner in which it collects its food on the water with the lower mandible; by others it is called the Shearbill and Cutwater.---The *Bill* of this bird is greatly compreſſed, lower mandible much larger than the upper.---*Noſtrils*, linear and pervious.---A ſmall *back toe*.---*Tail*, a little forked. In its habits and figure it reſembles the gulls.

GEN. 7. STERNA.

This genus contains the Terns and the Nodies: of the former there are ſeven ſpecies, all of which are found about the ſeas of America; of the latter we know of but one common to the ſame ſituations; indeed it is nothing but a ſpecies of the tern rather ſmaller. Characters---*Bill*, ſhort, ſlender and pointed.---*Noſtrils*, linear.---*Tongue*, ſlender and ſharp.---*Wings*, very long.---A ſmall *back toe*.---*Tail*, forked.

GEN. 8. LARUS.

The characters of this genus, which comprehends the Gulls and Mews, names which only diſtinguiſh this family into the greater and leſſer gulls, are---*Bill*, ſtrong, bending down at the point, on the under part of the lower mandible an angular prominency.---*Noſtrils*, oblong and narrow, placed in the middle of the bill.---*Tongue*, a little cloven.---*Body*, light.---*Wings*, long.---*Legs*, ſmall, naked above

the

the knees.---*Back toe*, ſmall.---Briſſon has eighteen ſpecies of this genus, and we are inclined to think them as common to the ſhores of America as Europe.

GEN. 9. PROCELLARIA.

The Peterel, which forms this genus, inhabits all parts of the ocean; it braves and ſports with the moſt furious ſtorms, and ſome of the ſpecies ſeem to enjoy thoſe tremendous ſcenes which ſink the courage of the braveſt men: they are found in great plenty in the ſeas near the cape of Good Hope and along the coaſts of America, in the ſame parallels. The characters of this genus are---*Bill*, ſtraight, except at the end, which is hooked.---*Noſtrils*, cylindric and tubular.---*Legs*, naked above the knees.---No back toe, but a ſharp ſpur pointing downwards inſtead.

GEN. 10. MERGUS.

The Merganſer is the ſpecies that forms this genus; it is found in the north of Europe and north of America.---Its *bill* is ſlender, a little depreſſed, furniſhed at the end with a crooked nail; edges of each mandible very ſharply ſerrated.---*Noſtrils*, near the middle of the mandible ſmall and ſubovated.---*Tongue*, ſlender.---*Feet*, the exterior toe longer than the middle. The largeſt birds of this ſpecies are between a duck and gooſe, the ſmaller about the ſize of the duck. There are in the whole about ſeven ſpecies known.

GEN. 11. ANAS.

This genus includes the whole of the duck tribe, under the name of Swan, Gooſe, Duck, Widgeon, Teal, &c. of which near ſeventy ſpecies are known in America; of the ſpecies of the ſwan only one, of the gooſe ten, the reſt ducks, &c. The diſtinguiſhing characters of this genus are---*Bill*, ſtrong, broad, flat or depreſſed, and commonly furniſhed at the end with a nail, edges marked with ſharp lamillæ.---*Noſtrils*, ſmall, oval.---*Tongue*, broad, edges near the baſe fringed.---*Feet*, middle toe the largeſt.

GEN. 12. PELICANUS.

The birds in this genus which may be ſaid to belong to America, or found in its ſeas, are the Pelican, of which there are two ſpecies and four varieties belonging to that continent: the Boobies, ſix ſpecies; the Frigat or Man of War bird; and, according to the opinion of Buffon, the Garnet. The characters of the pelican are---*Bill*, long and ſtraight, the end hooked or ſloping.---*Noſtrils*, either entirely wanting, or ſmall and placed in a furrow which runs along the ſides of

the bill.—*Face*, naked.—*Gullet*, naked, and capable of great diſtenſion.—*Toes*, all four webbed.

GEN. 13. PHAETON.

This genus is formed of the tropic birds; a claſs of the winged tribe, whoſe favourite haunts are the ſequeſtered iſlands of India and America. There are three ſpecies known.—The *bill* is compreſſed ſlightly ſloping down, point ſharp, under mandible angular. —*Noſtrils*, pervious.---*Toes*, all four webbed.---*Tail*, cuneiform, two middle feathers tapering and extending to a vaſt length beyond the others.

GEN. 14. PLOTUS.

Characters---*Bill*, long, ſtraight, ſharp-pointed.---*Neck*, of a great length.---*Face* and *gullet*, covered with feathers.---*Toes*, all four webbed. The darter or anhinga is the only bird in this genus. We believe there are three ſpecies, beſides varieties, in the ſouthern part of the new continent.

GEN. 15.

The penguin may be conſidered as the link between birds and fiſhes.---Its *bill* is ſtrong and ſtraight, bending only a little towards the point.---*Tongue*, covered with ſtrong, ſharp ſpines, pointing backwards.---*Wings*, very ſmall, pendulous, uſeleſs for flight, covered with mere flat ſhafts.---*Body*, covered with thick, ſhort feathers, with broad ſhafts placed as compactly as ſcales.---*Legs*, ſhort and thick, placed entirely behind.---*Toes*, four ſtanding forward, the interior looſe, the reſt webbed.---*Tail*, conſiſting of only broad ſhafts. There are two ſpecies found on the coaſts of South-America.*

* We noticed at the beginning of this account of American birds, that in the diviſion and orders we had followed Mr. Pennant—the ſeveral genera are as claſſed by Linnæus, except where otherwiſe mentioned.

REPTILES

OF

AMERICA.

IMPERFECT as the liſt of American quadrupeds and birds muſt be confeſſed to be, thoſe of the reptiles, fiſhes, and inſects muſt be much more ſo; few have been the characters who, with leiſure and abilities, have poſſeſſed the inclination for theſe reſearches, and thoſe who have attempted any thing of this kind, have contented themſelves with very partial advances, or have found ſuch difficulties as have prevented any great progreſs; they have, however, done ſufficient, we truſt, to ſtimulate others to a farther purſuit, and we may reaſonably hope that a few years will open to us a more particular acquaintance with the woods, the marſhes, the mountains, and waters of the new continent. The following liſts in a more particular manner refer to North-America, though perhaps the greater part are found all over the continent.

DIV. I. PEDATED REPTILES.

TORTOISE.

Green Tortoiſe,	Teſtudo, Mydas,	
Hawkbill do.	——— imbricata,	
Loggerhead do.	——— marina.	*Rati.*
Trunk do.	———	*Cateſby.*
Soft-ſhelled do.	———	
Serrated do.	———	
Chequered do.	——— Carolina,	
Mud do.	———	
Great Land do. *called in the United States*	Gopher.	

FROG.

Toad,	Rana, buſo, ſeveral ſpecies.
Bull-frog,	——— ocellata,
Water-frog,	——— *Cateſby.*
Green, tree, frog,	——— arborea,
Land-frog,	——— *Cateſby.*
Cinereous,	———
Bell-frog,	———
Small green-frog,	———

LIZARD.

Alligator,*	Lacerta, crocodylus,
Green-lizard,†	———

Five-

* This formidable animal has a vaſt mouth, furniſhed with ſharp teeth; from the back to the end of the tail ſerrated; ſkin tough and brown, and covered on the ſides with tubercles. Grows to the length of from eighteen to twenty-three feet.

This dreadful ſpecies is found in the warmer parts of North-America, and moſt numerous as we approach the ſouth, and the more fierce and ravenous; yet in Carolina it never devours the human ſpecies, but on the contrary, ſhuns mankind, yet will kill dogs as they ſwim in the rivers, and hogs which feed in the ſwamps. It is often ſeen floating like a log of wood on the ſurface of the water, and is miſtaken for ſuch by dogs, and other animals, which it ſeizes and draws under water to devour at its leiſure. Like the wolf, when preſſed by long hunger, it will ſwallow mud, and even ſtones, and pieces of wood. They often get into the wears in purſuit of fiſh, and do much miſchief by breaking them to pieces.

They are torpid during the winter in Carolina, and retire into their dens, which they form by burrowing far under ground; it makes the entrance under water, and works upwards. In ſpring it quits its retreat, and reſorts to the rivers, which it ſwims up and down, and chiefly ſeeks its prey near the mouth, where the water is brackiſh.

It roars and makes a dreadful noiſe at its firſt leaving its den, and againſt bad weather. It lays a vaſt number of eggs in the ſand, near the banks of lakes and rivers, and leaves them to be hatched by the ſun: multitudes are deſtroyed as ſoon as hatched, either by their own ſpecies, or by fiſh of prey. In South-America the carrion vulture is the inſtrument of Providence to deſtroy multitudes, by that means preventing the country from being rendered uninhabitable. Bartram, in his account of his travels, has given a very particular account of theſe creatures.

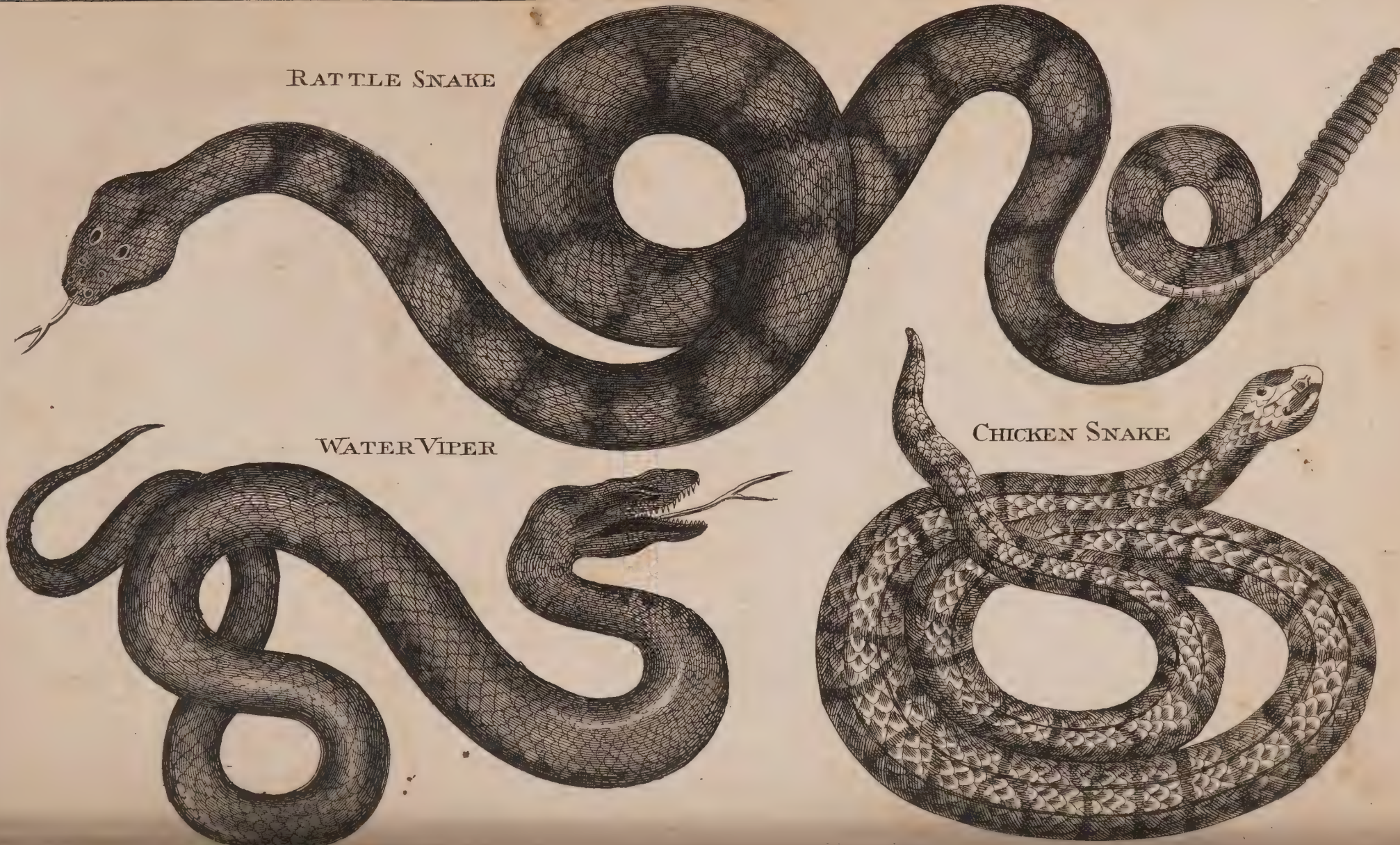
† This little creature is totally green; very ſlender; tail near double the length of the body, and its whole length about five inches.

It inhabits Carolina, is domeſtic, familiar, and harmleſs; ſports on tables and windows, and amuſes by its agility in catching flies; gazes at mankind without concern;

ſwells

ALLIGATOR

Green Lizard of Carolina


RATTLE SNAKE
WATER VIPER
CHICKEN SNAKE

Five-lined do. . . Lacerta,
Guada do. . . —— iguana,
Blue tail do. . . —— faciata,
Spotted do. . . —— punctata,
Annulated do. . ——
Slender do. . . ——
Scorpion do. . . ——
Lion do. . . —— ſex lineata.

SIREN.

Mud Iguana, or Siren,

DIV. II. WITHOUT FEET.

CROTALUS.

Great Rattle-ſnake,* . Crotalus, horridus,
Small do. . . —— duriſſus,
Miliary do. . . —— miliarus.

COLUBER.

ſwells its throat into a protuberance, which it diſcharges at will. Cold affects the colours; in that uncertain climate, when there is a quick tranſition, in the ſame day, from hot to cold, it changes inſtantly from the moſt brilliant green to a dull brown. It is ſometimes tempted by a gleam of ſun to quit its retreat, but by the ſudden change of weather, is ſo enfeebled, as not to be able to return to its hole, and will die with cold.

* This reptile has a brown broad head; yellowiſh brown back, marked with broad tranſverſe dentated bars of black; ſcales rough; belly cinereous; the jaws furniſhed with ſmall ſharp teeth; four fangs in the upper jaw, incurvated, large, and pointed, the inſtruments of death; at the baſe of each a round orifice, opening into a hollow, that near the end of the tooth appears again in form of a ſmall channel; theſe teeth may be erected or compreſſed; when in the action of biting, they force out of a gland near their roots the fatal juice; this is received into the round orifice of the teeth, conveyed through the tube into the channel, and thence with unerring direction into the wound.

The tail is furniſhed with a rattle, conſiſting of joints looſely connected; the number uncertain, depending, as is pretended, on the age of the animal, it receiving with every year a new joint. Authors mention forty and ſeventy.

Rattleſnakes grow to the length of eight feet, and, according to a newſpaper account, to fourteen.

They ſwarm in the leſs inhabited parts of North-America; now almoſt extirpated in the populous; none found farther north than the mountains near lake Champlain; but in the ſouth infeſt South-America, even as far as Braſil. Love woods and lofty hills, eſpecially where the ſtrata are rocky or chalky: the paſs near Niagara abounds with them,

COLUBER.

Familiar-ſnake,	Coluber, æſtivus,
Porracious do.	—— micterizans,
Croſſed do.	—— ſimus,
Water-viper,*	—— punctatus,

Black-

them. Being ſlow of motion, they frequent the ſides of rills, to make prey of frogs, or of ſuch animals that reſort there to quench their thirſt; are generally found during ſummer in pairs; in winter, collect in multitudes, and retire beneath the ground, beyond the reach of froſt: tempted by the warmth of a ſpring day, they are often obſerved to creep out weak and languid: a perſon has ſeen a piece of ground covered with them, and killed with a rod between ſixty and ſeventy, till overpowered with the ſtench, he was obliged to retire.

They couple in Auguſt, and then are moſt dangerous; are viviparous, and bring forth in June, about twelve young ones: between that and September they acquire the length of a foot.

Providence has given mankind a ſecurity againſt the bite of theſe dreadful reptiles, for it does not often fail warning the paſſenger of its vicinity, by the rattle of its tail. In fine weather that monition is always given, in wet weather ſeldom, which gives the Indians a dread of travelling amidſt the woods in rainy ſeaſons.

It moves along with the head on the ground; but if alarmed, it flings its body into a circle, coiling itſelf with the head in the centre erect, and with the eyes flaming in a moſt terrific manner. Happily it may be eaſily avoided: it is ſlow in purſuit, and has not the power of ſpringing at its aſſailant, like many of the innocent tribe.

It is difficult to ſpeak of its faſcinating powers: authors of credit deſcribe the effects. Birds have been ſeen to drop into its mouth, ſquirrels deſcend from their trees, and leverets run into its jaws. Terror and amazement ſeem to lay hold on theſe little animals; they make violent efforts to get away, ſtill keeping their eyes fixed on thoſe of the ſnake; at length, wearied with their movements, and frightened out of all capacity of knowing the courſe they ought to take, become at length the prey of the expecting devourer, probably in their laſt convulſive motion.

Rattleſnakes are apt to frequent houſes: every domeſtic animal on their approach, as if by inſtinct, takes alarm; dogs briſtle, and the poultry creſt their feathers; hogs only attack them, feeding on them with impunity. The Indians will alſo eat their fleſh.

The bite is of the moſt venomous kind; if the wound is on a vein or artery, death enſues as rapid as thought; if in a fleſhy part, there are hopes of remedy; the moſt efficacious, if done in time, is either the burning, or the cutting out the part affected. The ſymptoms are, *nauſea*, convulſions, ſpitting of blood, and bloody ſtools; loſs of the uſe of limbs; ſwellings, and diſcoloured ſkin; fever, *deliria*; and if the cure takes any length of time, diſturbed reſt, and dreams of the moſt horrible kinds.

* This ſnake has a large head, ſmall neck; fangs in the upper jaw; colour of the head and back duſky; belly faſciated with black and yellow. At the head of the tail a ſmall horny ſubſtance.

Inhabits

Black-ſnake,	Coluber, conſtrictor
Coach Whip do.	—— flagellum
Corn-ſnake,	—— fulvius
Black-viper,	—— preſter
Brown do.	—— luridus
Copper-bellied ſnake,	—— erythrogaſter
Striated do.	—— ſtriatulus
Dotted do.	—— punctatis
White bodied, brown-eyed do.	—— atropos
Black-ſnake, with linear rings,	—— leberis
Hooped do.	—— doliatus
Duſky do.	—— ſipedon
Vittated do.	—— ſirtalis
Penſacola do.	——
Minute do.	——
Golden-eyed do.	——
Moccaſin do.	——
Grey ſpotted do. of Carolina,	——
Little brown bead do.	—— annulatus
Joint do.	——
Garter do.	——

ANGUIS.

Glaſſy ſnake,	Anguis ventralis
Chicken do.	—— maculata
Striped do.	—— eryx
Blind do.	—— fragilis
Browniſh ſpotted do.	—— reticulata
Yellowiſh white do.	—— lumbricalis
Hiſſing do.	——
Ring do.	——
Pale-coloured do. with brown belts,	—— laticauda.

Inhabits Carolina; ſwims well, and is very dexterous in catching fiſh. During ſummer, numbers of them are ſeen hanging on the boughs of trees over the rivers, watching the approach of fiſh or fowl, and frequently drop into the boats paſſing beneath. They plunge on their prey, and purſue it with great ſwiftneſs; and as ſoon as they catch it, ſwim aſhore to devour it: are called the Water Rattleſnake, and are ſuppoſed to be as fatal in their bite. The little horn at the tail gives it a dreadful name, as if armed with death at both extremities. The ſuperſtitious believe, that by a jerk of that part it can mortally wound any animal, and even cauſe a tree to wither by tranſfixing the bark.

BOA.

Hog-nose snake,	Boa constortrix,
Greenish variegated do.	— canina,
Large spotted do.	— constrictor,*
Murine do.	— murina,
Ash-coloured do.	— scytale,
Yellow spotted do.	— cenchria,
Dusky white do.	— enydris,
Pale-coloured do.	— hortulana.

* This is an immense animal; it often exceeds thirty-six feet in length; the body is very thick, of a dusky white colour, and its back is interspersed with twenty-four large pale irregular spots; the tail is of a darker colour, and the sides are beautifully variegated with pale spots: besides, the whole body is interspersed with small brown spots. The head is covered with small scales, and has no broad laminæ betwixt the eyes, but has a black belt behind the eyes. It wants the large dog-fangs, and of course its bite is not poisonous. The tongue is fleshy and forked. Above the eyes, on each side, the head rises high. The scales of this serpent are all very small, roundish and smooth. The tail does not exceed one-eighth of the whole length of the animal. The Indians, who adore this monstrous animal, use the skin for clothes, on account of its smoothness and beauty. There are several of these skins of the above dimensions preserved, and to be seen in the different museums of Europe, particularly in the library and botanic garden of Upsal in Sweden, which has of late been greatly enriched by Count Grillinborg. The flesh of this serpent is eat by the Indians and the negroes. Piso, Margraave and Kempfer, give the following account of its method of living and catching its prey. It frequents caves and thick forests, where it conceals itself, and suddenly darts out upon strangers, wild beasts, &c. When it chooses a tree for its watching-place, it supports itself by twisting its tail round the trunk or a branch, and darts down upon sheep, goats, tigers, or any animal that comes within its reach. When it lays hold of animals, especially any of the larger kinds, it twists itself several times round their body, and by the vast force of its circular muscles bruises and breaks all their bones: after the bones are broke, it licks the skin of the animal all over, besmearing it with a glutinous kind of saliva. This operation is intended to facilitate deglutition, and is a preparation for swallowing the whole animal. If it be a stag, or any horned animal, it begins to swallow the feet first, and gradually sucks in the body, and last of all the head; when the horns happen to be large, this serpent has been observed to go about for a long time with the horns of a stag sticking out from its mouth: as the animal digests, the horns putrefy and fall off. After this serpent has swallowed a stag or a tiger, it is unable for some days to move; the hunters, who are well acquainted with this circumstance, always take this opportunity of destroying it. When irritated it makes a loud hissing noise. It is said to cover itself over with leaves in such places as stags or other animals frequent, in order to conceal itself from their sight, and that it may the more easily lay hold of them.

N. B. The figure given in the annexed plate, by mistake of the engraver, is improperly called The Black Snake.

BLACK SNAKE.

TWO-HEADED SNAKE.

This has in general been conſidered as a monſtrous production; but Mr. Morſe ſays, he is diſpoſed to believe that it is a diſtinct ſpecies; he obſerves that he has ſeen one, and received accounts of three others, found in different parts of the United States: one of theſe was about eight inches long, and both heads, as to every outward appearance, were equally perfect, and branching out from the neck at an acute angle.

FISH
OF
NORTH-AMERICA.

CETACEOUS FISH.

DOLPHIN.	Porpoiſe,	WHALE.	Whale, *eight ſpecies*,
	Grampus,		
	Beluga.		

CARTILAGINOUS FISH.

LAMPREY.	Sea lamprey,	ANGLER.	C. Angler,
RAY.	Thornback,	BALISTES.	Unicorn fiſh,
	Sting,		Old wife,
	Skate,		Baliſtra,
	Divel,	OSTRACION.	S. Oſtracion,
SHARK.	Arrow-headed ſhark,	TETRODON.	Prickly tetrodon,
	Saw ſhark,		Short do.
	White ſhark,		Globe do.
STURGEON.	Sturgeon,	LUMPUS.	Lump,
	Huſo,	PIPE.	Short pipe.

BONY FISH.

SECT. I. APODAL.

EEL.	Common eel,	EEL.	Black eel,
	Conger eel,	LANCE:	Lance.
	Muray eel,		

SECT. 2. JUGULAR.

COD.	Common cod	COD.	Whiting,
	Froſt do.		Tau,
	Haddock,		Burbot,
	Coal fiſh,	BLENNY.	P. Blenny.
	Pollock,		

SECT.

SECT. 3. THORACIC.

REMORA. Sucking fish,
CORYPHÆNE. Blue coryphæne,
Parrot do.
Lineated do.
BULL-HEAD. Father lasher,
Acadian bull-head,
ZEHUS. Doree,
FLOUNDER. C. Flounder,
Hollibut,
Plaice,
Sole,
Lineated flounder,
Lunated do.
Dentated do.
GILT-HEAD. Snapper,
Pork fish,
Porgy,
Silver fish,
Radiated gilt-head,
Virginian do.
WRASSE. Mutton fish,
Mangrove do.
Hog do.
Great hog do.
Cinereous wrasse,
Gaper,
Drum fish, *four species*,
Yellow wrasse,
Bone fish,
Antient,
CHÆTODON. Scaleless chætodon,
Rhombard,
Angel,
Noble,
PERCH. Yellow perch,
Rudder do.
Dotted do.
Croker,
Eyed perch,
Philadelphian do.
Black do.
Margot,
Negro perch,
Black tail do.
Venomous do.
Grunter,
Striated perch,
Hind,
Trifurcated perch,
Striped bass,
Basse,
Apodal,
River perch,
STICKLEBACK. Stickleback, *four species*,
Skipjack,
MACKREL. Mackrel, *three species*,
Tunny fish,
Bonito,
GURNARD. Flying gurnard.

ABDOMINAL.

LOCHE. Beardless loche,
Bearded do.
AMEA. Bold ame,
SILURE. Felis,
Cat fish,
Armed silure,
TEUTHYS. Tang,
PIKE. C. Pike,
Fox pike,
Barracauda,
Bony pike,
Carolina pike,
Gar,
Brasilian pike,

SALMON.	Salmon,	MULLET.	C. Mullet,
	Naymacush,		White mullet,
	Salmon trout,	HERRING.	C. Herring,
	Char,		Thrisa,
	Omiscomaycus,		Shad,
	Sea salmon,	CARP.	C. Carp,
	Guiniad,		Dace,
	Sea guiniad,		Roach,
	Smelt,		Bream,
	Slender,		
	Capelan,		Minnow,
ELOPS.	Elops,		Gudgeon,
ARGENTINE.	Bahama argentine,		Sucker,
ATHERINE.	Atherine,		Mummy chog,
POLYNEME.	Virginian polyneme,		Minute, &c.

INSECTS

INSECTS
OF
NORTH-AMERICA.

SECT I. BEETLE.

CHAFER,	Scarabeus,	thirty-one ſpecies,
STAG-BEETLE,	Lucanus,	four ſpecies,
LEATHER-EATER,	Dermeſtes,	four ſpecies,
MIMIC-BEETLE,	Hiſter,	unicolor,
WHIRL-BEETLE,	Gyrinus,	Americanus,
CARRION-BEETLE,	Silpha,	ſeven ſpecies,
WEEVIL,	Curculio,	eight ſpecies,
NUT-BEETLE,	Attelabus,	two ſpecies,
LADY-FLY,	Coccinella,	four ſpecies,
GLOW-WORM,	Lampyris,	three ſpecies,
SEED-BEETLE,	Bruchus Piſi,	*Kalm* 1173—1177,
GOLDEN-HONEY-BEETLE,	Chryſomela,	twenty-three ſpecies,
BLISTER-BEETLE,	Meloë,	three ſpecies,
STINKING-BEETLE,	Tenebrio,	four ſpecies,
TORTOISE-BEETLE,	Caſſida,	two ſpecies,
GLOSSY-BEETLE,	Cicindela,	three ſpecies,
GROUND-BEETLE,	Carabus	thirteen ſpecies,
BURN-COW,	Bupreſtis,	four ſpecies,
SPRING-BEETLE,	Elater,	four ſpecies,
WATER-BEETLE,	Dytiſcus,	five ſpecies,
SOFTWINGED-BEETLE,	Malacopteryx,	Amer. N. S. *Muſ. Bl.*
	Cantharis,	tropica,
WOOD-BEETLE,	Leptura,	ſix ſpecies,
CAPRICORN-BEETLE,	Cerambyx,	ſeventeen ſpecies,
ROVE-BEETLE,	Staphylinus,	two ſpecies,
CLIPT-WINGED-BEETLE,	Necydalis,	collaris. N. S. *Muſ. Bl.*
EARWIG,	Forficula,	auricularia.

SECT.

SECT. II. HALF-WINGED INSECTS.

Cockroach,	Blatta,	four ſpecies,
Camelcricket,	Mantis,	two ſpecies,
Locust,	Gryllus,	nine ſpecies,
Flea-locust,	Cicada,	ten ſpecies,
Boat-fly,	Notonecta,	ſeveral ſpecies,
Water-scorpion,	Nepa,	grandis,
Bug,	Cimex,	twelve ſpecies,
Plantsucker,	Chermes,	many ſpecies,
Cochineal,	Coccus,	Cacti. *Bartram's Florida.*

SECT. III. PAPILIONACEOUS INSECTS.

Butterfly,	Papilio,	twenty-nine ſpecies,
Hawk-moth,	Sphinx,	ſix ſpecies,
Moth,	Phalæna,	fifteen ſpecies.

SECT. IV. INSECTS WITH NERVOUS WINGS.

Dragon-fly,	Libellula,	ſix ſpecies,
Camel-fly,	Raphidia,	cornuta,
Spring-fly,	Phryganea,	bicaudata,
Pearl-fly,	Hemerobius,	pectinicornis,
Scorpion-fly,	Panorpa,	communis.

SECT. V. INSECTS WITH STINGS.

Bee,	Apis,	ten ſpecies,
Ant,	Formica,	two ſpecies,
Wasp,	Veſpa,	five ſpecies,
Golden-wall-fly,		Chryſis cyanea,
Tailed-wasp,	Sirex,	Columba. *Muſ. Bl.*
Saw-fly,	Tenthredo,	three ſpecies,
Ichneumon-wasp,	Sphex,	four ſpecies,
Ichneumon-fly,	Ichneumon,	luteus,
Naked-bee,	Mutilla,	occidentalis.

SECT. VI. TWO-WINGED INSECTS.

Gnat,	Culex,	two ſpecies,
Wasp-fly,	Aſilus,	two ſpecies.
Flower-breeze,	Bombylius,	minor. *Muſ. Bl.*
Horse-fly,	Hippoboſca,	hirundinis. *Muſ. Bl.*
Fly,	Muſca,	five ſpecies.

Wham,

WHAME,	Tabanus,	Americanus, N. S. *Muſ. Bl.*
GAD-FLY,	Oeſtrus.	Tarandi.

SECT. VII. INSECTS WITHOUT WINGS.

SUGAR-MITE,	Lepiſma,	ſaccharina,
GROUND-FLEA,	Podura,	aquatica,
DEATH-WATCH,	Termes,	pulſatorium,
LOUSE,	Pediculus,	five ſpecies,
FLEA,	Pulex,	two ſpecies,
TICK,	Acarus,	three ſpecies,
LONGLEG-SPIDER,	Phalangium,	five ſpecies,
SPIDER,	Aranea,	many ſpecies,
SCORPION,	Scorpio,	two ſpecies,
CRAB-FISH,	Cancer,	eleven ſpecies,
LOBSTER,		four ſpecies,
SHRIMP,		
MONOCULE,		Monoculus Pol. *M. Bl.*
MILLEPEE,	Oniſcus,	four ſpecies,
CENTIPEE,	Scolopendra,	four ſpecies,
GALLY-WORM,	Iulus,	craſſus.

VERMES.

SEA CLAM, - -	Holothuria phantaphus,
SQUID, - - -	Sepia media,
———	Sepia loligo,
SEA LUNGS, - -	Meduſa pilearis,
STAR FISH, OR FINGER FISH,	Aſterias, three or four ſpecies,
SEA EGG, - -	Echinus, ſeveral ſpecies,
BARNACLE, - -	Lepas anatifera,
HOG CLAM, - -	Mya arenaria,
RAZOR SHELL CLAM, -	Solen enſis,
LONG SHELL CLAM, -	Solen radiatis,
OYSTER, - - -	Oſtrea, ———,
MUSCLE, - - -	Mytilus edulis,
COCKLE, - -	Nerita littoralis?
LIMPETS, - -	Patella fuſca,
SAND SHELL CLAM, -	Sabella granulata,
SEA ANEMONE, - -	Anemone marina (loco-motiva.)

APPENDIX. No. I;

TREATIES

BETWEEN

HIS MOST CHRISTIAN MAJESTY AND THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

TREATY OF AMITY AND COMMERCE.

LOUIS, by the Grace of GOD, King of France and Navarre, to all who ſhall ſee theſe preſents, greeting:

THE Congreſs of the Thirteen United States of North-America having, by their Plenipotentiaries reſiding at Paris, notified their deſire to eſtabliſh with us and our States a good underſtanding and perfect correſpondence, and having for that purpoſe propoſed to conclude with us a *Treaty of Amity and Commerce:* We having thought it our duty to give to the ſaid States a ſenſible proof of our affection, determining us to accept of their propoſals: for theſe cauſes, and other good conſiderations us thereunto moving, we, repoſing entire confidence in the abilities and experience, zeal and fidelity for our ſervice, of our dear and beloved Conrad Alexander Gerard, royal ſyndic of the city of Straſburg, and ſecretary of our council of ſtate, have nominated, appointed, and commiſſioned, and by theſe preſents, ſigned with our hand, do nominate, appoint and commiſſion him our plenipotentiary, giving him power and ſpecial command for us and in our name, to agree upon, conclude and ſign with the plenipotentiaries of the

United States, equally furniſhed in due form with full powers, ſuch Treaty, Convention, and Articles of Commerce and Navigation, as he ſhall think proper; willing that he act with the ſame authority as we might or could act, if we were perſonally preſent, and even as though he had more ſpecial command than what is herein contained; promiſing in good faith, and on the word of a king, to agree to, confirm, and eſtabliſh for ever, and to accompliſh and execute punctually, all that our ſaid dear and beloved Conrad Alexander Gerard ſhall ſtipulate and ſign, by virtue of the preſent power, without contravening it in any manner, or ſuffering it to be contravened for any cauſe, or under any pretext whatſoever; and alſo to ratify the ſame in due form, and cauſe our ratification to be delivered and exchanged in the time that ſhall be agreed on. For ſuch is our pleaſure. In teſtimony whereof we have hereunto ſet our ſeal. Done at Verſailles this thirtieth day of January, in the year of our Lord one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſeventy-eight, and the fourth year of our reign.

(Signed)

(L. S.) LOUIS.

(Underneath) By the King.

GRAVIER DE VERGENNES.

TREATY.

The Moſt Chriſtian King, and the Thirteen United States of North-America, to wit, New-Hampſhire, Maſſachuſett's-bay, Rhode-Iſland, Connecticut, New-York, New-Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina and Georgia, willing to fix in an equitable and permanent manner, the rules which ought to be followed relative to the correſpondence and commerce which the two parties deſire to eſtabliſh between their reſpective countries, ſtates and ſubjects; his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty and the ſaid United States have judged, that the ſaid end could not be better obtained, than by taking for the baſis of their agreement the moſt perfect equality and reciprocity, and by carefully avoiding all thoſe burthenſome preferences which are uſually ſources of debate, embarraſſment and diſcontent; by leaving alſo each party at liberty to make reſpecting navigation and commerce, thoſe interior regulations which it ſhall find moſt convenient to itſelf, and by founding the advantage of commerce ſolely upon reciprocal utility, and the juſt rules of free intercourſe; reſerving withal to each party the liberty of admitting, at its pleaſure, other nations to a par-

participation of the ſame advantages. It is in the ſpirit of this intention, and to fulfil theſe views, that his ſaid Majeſty, having named and appointed for his plenipotentiary Conrad Alexander Gerard, royal ſyndic of the city of Straſburg, ſecretary of his majeſty's council of ſtate; and the United States, on their part, having fully empowered Benjamin Franklin, deputy from the State of Pennſylvania to the General Congreſs, and preſident to the convention of the State; Silas Deane, late deputy from the State of Connecticut to the ſaid Congreſs; and Arthur Lee, counſellor at law; the ſaid reſpective plenipotentiaries, after exchanging their powers, and after mature deliberation, have concluded and agreed upon the following articles:

Article I. There ſhall be a firm, inviolable and univerſal peace, and a true and ſincere friendſhip, between the Moſt Chriſtian King, his heirs and ſucceſſors, and the United States of America, and the ſubjects of the Moſt Chriſtian King and of the ſaid States, and between the countries, iſlands, cities and towns, ſituate under the juriſdiction of the Moſt Chriſtian King and of the ſaid United States, and the people and inhabitants of every degree, without exception of perſons or places, and the terms herein after mentioned, ſhall be perpetual between the Moſt Chriſtian King, his heirs and ſucceſſors, and the ſaid United States.

Art. II. The Moſt Chriſtian King and the United States engage mutually not to grant any particular favour to other nations, in reſpect of commerce and navigation, which ſhall not immediately become common to the other party, who ſhall enjoy the ſame favour freely, if the conceſſion was freely made, or on allowing the ſame compenſation, if the conceſſion was conditional.

Art. III. The ſubjects of the Moſt Chriſtian King ſhall pay in the ports, havens, roads, countries, iſlands, cities or towns of the United States, or any of them, no other or greater duties or impoſts, of what nature ſoever they may be, or by what name ſoever called, than thoſe which the nations moſt favoured are or ſhall be obliged to pay; and they ſhall enjoy all the rights, liberties, privileges, immunities and exemptions in trade, navigation and commerce, whether in paſſing from one port in the ſaid States to another, or in going to and from the ſame, from and to any part of the world, which the ſaid nations do or ſhall enjoy.

Art. IV. The ſubjects, people and inhabitants of the ſaid United States, and each of them, ſhall not pay in the ports, havens, roads,

iſlands, cities and places under the domination of his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty in Europe, any other or greater duties or impoſts, of what nature ſoever they may be, or by what name ſoever called, than thoſe which the moſt favoured nations are or ſhall be obliged to pay; and they ſhall enjoy all the rights, liberties, privileges, immunities and exemptions in trade, navigation and commerce, whether in paſſing from one port in the ſaid dominions in Europe to another, or in going to and from the ſame, from and to any part of the world, which the ſaid nations do or ſhall enjoy.

Art. V. In the above exemption is particularly compriſed the impoſition of one hundred ſous per ton, eſtabliſhed in France on foreign ſhips, unleſs when the ſhips of the United States ſhall load with the merchandiſe of France for another port of the ſaid dominions; in which caſe the ſhips ſhall pay the duty above mentioned, ſo long as other nations the moſt favoured ſhall be obliged to pay it; but it is underſtood, that the ſaid United States, or any of them, are at liberty, when they ſhall judge it proper, to eſtabliſh a duty equivalent in the ſame caſe.

Art. VI. The Moſt Chriſtian King ſhall endeavour, by all the means in his power, to protect and defend all veſſels and the effects belonging to the ſubjects, people or inhabitants, of the ſaid United States, or any of them, being in his ports, havens or roads, or on the ſeas near his countries, iſlands, cities or towns; and to recover and reſtore to the right owners, their agents or attornies, all ſuch veſſels and effects which ſhall be taken within his juriſdiction; and the ſhips of war of his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, or any convoy ſailing under his authority, ſhall, upon all occaſions, take under their protection all veſſels belonging to the ſubjects, people or inhabitants, of the ſaid United States, or any of them, and holding the ſame courſe, or going the ſame way, and ſhall defend ſuch veſſels as long as they hold the ſame courſe, or go the ſame way, againſt all attacks, force or violence, in the ſame manner as they ought to protect and defend the veſſels belonging to the ſubjects of the Moſt Chriſtian King.

Art. VII. In like manner the ſaid United States, and their ſhips of war ſailing under their authority, ſhall protect and defend, conformably to the tenor of the preceding article, all the veſſels and effects belonging to the ſubjects of the Moſt Chriſtian King, and uſe all their endeavours to recover, and cauſe to be reſtored, the

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ſaid veſſels and effects that ſhall have been taken within the juriſdiction of the ſaid United States, or any of them.

Art. VIII. The Moſt Chriſtian King will employ his good offices and interpoſitions with the King or Emperor of Morocco or Fez; the regencies of Algiers, Tunis and Tripoly, or with any of them; and alſo with every other prince, ſtate or power, of the coaſt of Barbary in Africa, and the ſubjects of the ſaid king, emperor, ſtates and powers, and each of them, in order to provide as fully and efficaciouſly as poſſible, for the benefit, conveniency and ſafety of the ſaid United States, and each of them, their ſubjects, people and inhabitants, and their veſſels and effects, againſt all violence, inſults, attacks or depredations, on the part of the ſaid princes and ſtates of Barbary, or their ſubjects.

Art. IX. The ſubjects, inhabitants, merchants, commanders of ſhips, maſters and mariners of the ſtates, provinces and dominions of each party reſpectively, ſhall abſtain and forbear to fiſh in all places poſſeſſed, or which ſhall be poſſeſſed by the other party; the Moſt Chriſtian King's ſubjects ſhall not fiſh in the havens, bays, creeks, roads, coaſts or places, which the ſaid United States hold, or ſhall hereafter hold; and in like manner the ſubjects, people and inhabitants of the United States ſhall not fiſh in the havens, bays, creeks, roads, coaſts or places, which the Moſt Chriſtian King poſſeſſes, or ſhall hereafter poſſeſs; and if any ſhip or veſſel ſhall be found fiſhing contrary to the tenor of this treaty, the ſaid ſhip or veſſel, with its lading, (proof being made thereof) ſhall be confiſcated: it is however underſtood, that the excluſion ſtipulated in the preſent article ſhall take place only ſo long, and ſo far, as the Moſt Chriſtian King, or the United States, ſhall not in this reſpect have granted an exemption to ſome other nation.

Art. X. The United States, their citizens and inhabitants, ſhall never diſturb the ſubjects of the Moſt Chriſtian King in the enjoyment and exerciſe of the right of fiſhing on the banks of Newfoundland, nor in the indefinite and excluſive right which belongs to them on that part of the coaſt of that iſland which is deſigned by the treaty of Utrecht, nor in the right relative to all and each of the iſles which belong to his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, the whole conformable to the true ſenſe of the treaties of Utrecht and Paris.

Art. XI. The ſubjects and inhabitants of the ſaid United States, or any of them, ſhall not be reputed *aubains* in France, and conſequently ſhall be exempted from the *droit d'aubaine*, or other ſimilar

duty, under what name ſoever; they may by teſtament, donation, or otherwiſe, diſpoſe of their goods, moveable and immoveable, in favour of ſuch perſons as to them ſhall ſeem good; and their heirs, ſubjects of the United States, reſiding whether in France or elſewhere, may ſucceed them, *ab inteſtat*, without being obliged to obtain letters of naturalization, and without having the effect of this conceſſion conteſted or impeded, under pretext of any rights or prerogatives of provinces, cities or private perſons; and the ſaid heirs, whether ſuch by particular title, or *ab inteſtat*, ſhall be exempted from the duty called *droit de detraction*, or other duty of the ſame kind; ſaving nevertheleſs the local rights or duties, as much and as long as ſimilar ones are not eſtabliſhed by the United States, or any of them. The ſubjects of the Moſt Chriſtian King ſhall enjoy, on their part, in all the dominions of the ſaid States, an entire and perfect reciprocity, relative to the ſtipulations contained in the preſent article: but it is at the ſame time agreed, that its contents ſhall not affect the laws made or that may be made hereafter in France, againſt emigrations, which ſhall remain in all their force and vigour; and the United States, on their part, or any of them, ſhall be at liberty to enact ſuch laws, relative to that matter, as to them ſhall ſeem proper.

Art. XII. The merchant ſhips of either of the parties, which ſhall be making into a port belonging to the enemy of the other ally, and concerning whoſe voyage and the ſpecies of goods on board her there ſhall be juſt grounds of ſuſpicion, ſhall be obliged to exhibit, as well upon the high ſeas as in the ports and havens, not only her paſſports, but likewiſe certificates, expreſsly ſhewing that her goods are not of the number of thoſe which have been prohibited as contraband.

Art. XIII. If, by exhibiting of the above ſaid certificates, the other party diſcover there are any of thoſe ſorts of goods which are prohibited and declared contraband, and conſigned for a port under the obedience of his enemy, it ſhall not be lawful to break up the hatches of ſuch ſhip, or to open any cheſt, coffers, packs, caſks, or any other veſſel found therein, or to remove the ſmalleſt parcel of her goods, whether ſuch ſhip belong to the ſubjects of France, or the inhabitants of the ſaid United States, unleſs the lading be brought on ſhore, in the preſence of the officers of the court of admiralty, and an inventory thereof made; but there ſhall be no allowance to ſell, exchange, or alienate the ſame in any manner, until that after due and lawful proceſs ſhall have been had againſt ſuch prohibited

goods,

goods, and the court of admiralty ſhall, by a ſentence pronounced, have confiſcated the ſame, ſaving always as well the ſhip itſelf, as any other goods found therein, which by this treaty are to be eſteemed free; neither may they be detained on pretence of their being as it were infected by the prohibited goods, much leſs ſhall they be confiſcated as lawful prize. But if not the whole cargo, but only part thereof ſhall conſiſt of prohibited or contraband goods, and the commander of the ſhip ſhall be ready and willing to deliver them to the captor who has diſcovered them; in ſuch caſe, the captor having received thoſe goods, ſhall forthwith diſcharge the ſhip, and not hinder her by any means, freely to proſecute the voyage on which ſhe was bound. But in caſe the contraband merchandiſes cannot be all received on board the veſſel of the captor, then the captor may, notwithſtanding the offer of delivering him the contraband goods, carry the veſſel into the neareſt port, agreeable to what is above directed.

Art. XIV. On the contrary, it is agreed, that whatever ſhall be found to be laden by the ſubjects and inhabitants of either party, or any ſhip belonging to the enemies of the other, or to their ſubjects, the whole, although it be not of the ſort of prohibited goods, may be confiſcated in the ſame manner as if it belonged to the enemy, except ſuch goods and merchandiſe as were put on board ſuch ſhip before the declaration of war, or even after ſuch declaration, if ſo be it were done without knowledge of ſuch declaration; ſo that the goods of the ſubjects and people of either party, whether they be of the nature of ſuch as are prohibited or otherwiſe, which, as is aforeſaid, were put on board any ſhip belonging to an enemy before the war, or after the declaration of the ſame, without the knowledge of it, ſhall no ways be liable to confiſcation, but ſhall well and truly be reſtored without delay to the proprietors demanding the ſame; but ſo as that if the ſaid merchandiſes be contraband, it ſhall not be any ways lawful to carry them afterwards to any port belonging to the enemy. The two contracting parties agree, that the term of two months being paſſed after the declaration of war, their reſpective ſubjects, from whatever part of the world they come, ſhall not plead the ignorance mentioned in this article.

Art. XV. And that more effectual care may be taken for the ſecurity of the ſubjects and inhabitants of both parties, that they ſuffer no injury by the men of war or privateers of the other party, all the commanders of the ſhips of his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty and of the ſaid United States, and all their ſubjects and inhabitants, ſhall be

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forbid doing any injury or damage to the other ſide; and if they act to the contrary they ſhall be puniſhed, and ſhall moreover be bound to make ſatisfaction for all matter of damage, and the intereſt thereof, by reparation, under the pain and obligation of their perſons and goods.

Art. XVI. All ſhips and merchandiſe, of what nature ſoever, which ſhall be reſcued out of the hands of any pirates or robbers on the high ſeas, ſhall be brought into ſome port of either ſtate, and ſhall be delivered to the cuſtody of the officers of that port, in order to be reſtored entire to the true proprietor, as ſoon as due and ſufficient proof ſhall be made concerning the property thereof.

Art. XVII. It ſhall be lawful for the ſhips of war of either party, and privateers, freely to carry whitherſoever they pleaſe the ſhips and goods taken from their enemies, without being obliged to pay any duty to the officers of the admiralty, or any other judges; nor ſhall ſuch prizes be arreſted or ſeized when they come and enter the port of each party; nor ſhall the ſearchers or other officers of thoſe places ſearch the ſame, or make examination concerning the lawfulneſs of ſuch prizes; but they may hoiſt ſail at any time, and depart, and carry their prizes to the places expreſſed in their commiſſions, which the commanders of ſuch ſhips of war ſhall be obliged to ſhew. On the contrary, no ſhelter or refuge ſhall be given in their ports to ſuch as ſhall have made prizes of the ſubjects, people, or property of either of the parties; but if ſuch ſhall come in, being forced by ſtreſs of weather, or the danger of the ſea, all proper means ſhall be vigorouſly uſed, that they go out and retire from thence as ſoon as poſſible.

Art. XVIII. If any ſhip belonging to either of the parties, their people, or ſubjects, ſhall, within the coaſts or dominions of the other, ſtick upon the ſands, or be wrecked or ſuffer any other damage, all friendly aſſiſtance and relief ſhall be given to the perſons ſhipwrecked, or ſuch as ſhall be in danger thereof. And letters of ſafe conduct ſhall likewiſe be given to them for their free and quiet paſſage from thence, and the return of every one to his own country.

Art. XIX. In caſe the ſubjects and inhabitants of either party, with their ſhipping, whether public and of war, or private and of merchants, be forced through ſtreſs of weather, purſuit of pirates or enemies, or any other urgent neceſſity, for ſeeking of ſhelter and harbour, to retreat and enter into any of the rivers, bays, roads, or ports belonging to the other party, they ſhall be received and treated with

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all humanity and kindneſs, and enjoy all friendly protection and help; and they ſhall be permitted to refreſh and provide themſelves at reaſonable rates with victuals and all things needful for the ſuſtenance of their perſons, or reparation of their ſhips, and conveniency of their voyage, and they ſhall no ways be detained or hindered from returning out of the ſaid ports or roads, but may remove and depart when and whither they pleaſe, without any let or hindrance.

Art. XX. For the better promoting of commerce on both ſides, it is agreed, that if a war ſhould break out between the ſaid two nations, ſix months after the proclamation of war ſhall be allowed to the merchants in the cities and towns where they live, for ſelling and tranſporting their goods and merchandiſes; and if any thing be taken from them, or any injury be done them within that term, by either party, or the people or ſubjects of either, full ſatisfaction ſhall be made for the ſame.

Art. XXI. No ſubject of the Moſt Chriſtian King ſhall apply for or take any commiſſion or letters of marque for arming any ſhip or ſhips to act as privateers againſt the ſaid United States, or any of them, or againſt the ſubjects, people, or inhabitants of the ſaid United States or any of them, or againſt the property of any of the inhabitants of any of them, from any prince or ſtate with which the United States ſhall be at war; nor ſhall any citizen, ſubject, or inhabitant of the ſaid United States, or any of them, apply for or take any commiſſion or letters of marque for arming any ſhip or ſhips to act as privateers againſt the ſubjects of the Moſt Chriſtian King, or any of them, or the property of any of the inhabitants of any of them, from any prince or ſtate with which the United States ſhall be at war; nor ſhall any citizen, ſubject, or inhabitant of the ſaid United States, or any of them, apply for or take any commiſſion or letters of marque for arming any ſhip or ſhips to act as privateers againſt the ſubjects of the Moſt Chriſtian King, or any of them, or the property of any of them, from any prince or ſtate with which the ſaid king ſhall be at war; and if any perſon of either nation ſhall take ſuch commiſſion or letters of marque, he ſhall be puniſhed as a pirate.

Art. XXII. It ſhall not be lawful for any foreign privateers, not belonging to the ſubjects of the Moſt Chriſtian King, nor citizens of the ſaid United States, who have commiſſion from any other prince or ſtate at enmity with either nation, to fit their ſhips in the ports of either the one or the other of the aforeſaid parties, to ſell

what they have taken, or in any other manner whatſoever to exchange their ſhips, merchandiſes, or any other lading; neither ſhall they be allowed even to purchaſe victuals, except ſuch as ſhall be neceſſary for their going to the next port of that prince or ſtate from which they have commiſſions.

Art. XXIII. It ſhall be lawful for all and ſingular the ſubjects of the Moſt Chriſtian King, and the citizens, people, and inhabitants of the ſaid United States, to ſail with their ſhips with all manner of liberty and ſecurity, no diſtinction being made who are the proprietors of the merchandiſe laden thereon, from any port to the places of thoſe who now are or hereafter ſhall be at enmity with the Moſt Chriſtian King or the United States. It ſhall likewiſe be lawful for the ſubjects and inhabitants aforeſaid to ſail with the ſhips and merchandiſes aforementioned, and to trade with the ſame liberty and ſecurity from the places, ports, and havens of thoſe who are enemies of both or either party, without any oppoſition or diſturbance whatſoever, not only directly from the places of the enemy aforementioned to neutral places, but alſo from one place belonging to an enemy to another place belonging to an enemy, whether they be under the juriſdiction of the ſame prince or under ſeveral. And it is hereby ſtipulated, that free ſhips ſhall alſo have a freedom to carry goods, and that every thing ſhall be deemed free and exempt which ſhall be found on board the ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of either of the confederates, although the whole lading or any part thereof ſhould appertain to the enemies of either, contraband goods being always excepted. It is alſo agreed in like manner, that the ſame liberty be extended to perſons who are on board a free ſhip, with this effect, that although they be enemies to both or either party, they are not to be taken out of that free ſhip, unleſs they are ſoldiers and in actual ſervice of the enemies.

Art. XXIV. This liberty of navigation and commerce ſhall extend to all kinds of merchandiſes, except thoſe only which are diſtinguiſhed by the name of contraband; and under this name of contraband or prohibited goods ſhall be comprehended arms, great guns, bombs with their fuſees and other things belonging to them, cannon ball, gunpowder, match, pikes, ſwords, lances, ſpears, halberds, mortars, petards, grenadoes, ſaltpetre, muſkets, muſket ball, bucklers, helmets, breaſt plates, coats of mail, and the like kinds of arms proper for arming ſoldiers, muſket reſts, belts, horſes with their furniture, and all other warlike inſtruments whatever.

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Theſe merchandiſes which follow ſhall not be reckoned among contraband or prohibited goods; that is to ſay, all ſorts of clothes, and all other manufactures woven of any wool, flax, ſilk, cotton, or any other materials whatever; all kinds of wearing apparel, together with the ſpecies whereof they are uſed to be made, gold and ſilver, as well coined as uncoined, tin, iron, latten, copper, braſs, coals; as alſo wheat and barley, and any other kind of corn or pulſe, tobacco, and likewiſe all manner of ſpices, ſalted and ſmoaked fleſh, ſalted fiſh, cheeſe and butter, beer, oils, wines, ſugars, and all ſorts of ſalts, and in general all proviſions which ſerve for the nouriſhment of mankind and the ſuſtenance of life: furthermore, all kinds of cotton, hemp, flax, tar, pitch, ropes, cables, ſails, ſail-cloth, anchors, and any parts of anchors, alſo ſhips maſts, planks, boards and beams of what trees ſoever, and all other things proper either for building or repairing ſhips, and all other goods whatever which have not been worked into the form of any inſtrument or thing prepared for war by land or ſea, ſhall not be reputed contraband, much leſs ſuch as have been already wrought up for any other uſe; all of which ſhall be wholly reckoned among free goods; as likewiſe all other merchandiſes and things which are not comprehended and particularly mentioned in the foregoing enumeration of contraband goods, ſo that they may be tranſported and carried in the freeſt manner by the ſubjects of both confederates even to places belonging to an enemy, ſuch towns or places being only excepted as are at that time beſieged, blocked up or inveſted.

Art. XXV. To the end that all manner of diſſenſions and quarrels may be avoided and prevented on one ſide and the other, it is agreed, that in caſe either of the parties hereto ſhould be engaged in war, the ſhips and veſſels belonging to the ſubjects of people of the other ally muſt be furniſhed with ſea letters or paſſports, expreſſing the name, property, and bulk of the ſhip, as alſo the name and place of habitation of the maſter or commander of the ſaid ſhip, that it may appear thereby that the ſhip really and truly belongs to the ſubjects of one of the parties, which paſſport ſhall be made out and granted according to the form annexed to this treaty; they ſhall likewiſe be recalled every year, that is, if the ſhip happens to return home within the ſpace of a year: it is likewiſe agreed, that ſuch ſhips being laden are to be provided not only with paſſports as above mentioned, but alſo with certificates, containing the ſeveral particulars of the cargo, the place whence the

ſhip ſailed, and whither ſhe is bound, that ſo it may be known whether any forbidden or contraband goods be on board of the ſame, which certificates ſhall be made out by the officers of the place whence the ſhip ſet ſail, in the accuſtomed form; and if any one ſhall think it fit or adviſable to expreſs in the ſaid certificates the perſon to whom the goods on board belong, he may freely do ſo.

Art. XXVI. The ſhips of the ſubjects and inhabitants of either of the parties coming upon any coaſt belonging to either of the ſaid allies, but not willing to enter into port, or being entered into port and not willing to unload their cargoes or break bulk, they ſhall be treated according to the general rules preſcribed or to be preſcribed relative to the object in queſtion.

Art. XXVII. If the ſhips of the ſaid ſubjects, people or inhabitants of either of the parties ſhall be met with, either ſailing along the coaſts or on the high ſeas, by any ſhip of war of the other, or by any privateers, the ſaid ſhips of war or privateers, for the avoiding of any diſorder, ſhall remain out of cannot ſhot, and may ſend their boats on board the merchant ſhip which they ſhall ſo meet with, and may enter her to the number of two or three men only, to whom the maſter or commander of ſuch ſhip or veſſel ſhall exhibit his paſſport concerning the property of the ſhip, made out according to the form inſerted in this preſent treaty; and the ſhip, when ſhe ſhall have ſhewed ſuch paſſport, ſhall be free and at liberty to purſue her voyage, ſo as it ſhall not be lawful to moleſt or ſearch in any manner, or to give her chace, or to force her to quit her intended courſe.

Art. XXVIII. It is alſo agreed, that all goods, when once put on board the ſhips or veſſels of either of the two contracting parties, ſhall be ſubject to no further viſitation, but all viſitation or ſearch ſhall be made beforehand, and all prohibited goods ſhall be ſtopped on the ſpot before the ſame be put on board, unleſs there are manifeſt tokens or proofs of fraudulent practice; nor ſhall either the perſons or goods of the ſubjects of his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, or the United States, be put under any arreſt, or moleſted by any other kind of embargo for that cauſe, and only the ſubject of that State to whom the ſaid goods have been or ſhall be prohibited, and who ſhall preſume to ſell or alienate ſuch ſort of goods, ſhall be duly puniſhed for the offence.

Art. XXIX. The two contracting parties grant mutually the liberty of having each in the ports of the other, conſuls, vice-conſuls,

agents

agents and commiſſaries, whoſe functions ſhall be regulated by a particular agreement.

Art. XXX. And the more to favour and facilitate the commerce which the ſubjects of the United States may have with France, the Moſt Chriſtian King will grant them in Europe one or more free ports, where they may bring and diſpoſe of all the produce and merchandiſe of the Thirteen United States; and his Majeſty will alſo continue to the ſubjects of the ſaid States, the free ports which have been and are open in the French iſlands of America, of all which free ports the ſaid ſubjects of the United States ſhall enjoy the uſe, agreeable to the regulations which relate to them.

Art. XXXI. The preſent treaty ſhall be ratified on both ſides, and the ratifications ſhall be exchanged in the ſpace of ſix months, or ſooner, if poſſible.

In faith whereof the reſpective plenipotentiaries have ſigned the above articles both in the French and Engliſh languages; declaring, nevertheleſs, that the preſent treaty was originally compoſed and concluded in the French language, and they have thereto affixed their ſeals.

Done at Paris, this ſixth day of February, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſeventy-eight.

(L. S.) C. A. GERARD,
(L. S.) B. FRANKLIN,
(L. S.) SILAS DEANE,
(L. S.) ARTHUR LEE.

Form of the paſſports and letters which are to be given to the ſhips and barques, according to the twenty-fifth article of this treaty.

To all who ſhall ſee theſe preſents, greeting:

IT is hereby made known, that leave and permiſſion has been given to maſter and commander of the ſhip called of the town of burthen tons, or thereabouts, lying at preſent in the port and haven of and bound for and laden with after that this ſhip has been viſited, and before ſailing, he ſhall make oath before the officers who have the juriſdiction of maritime affairs, that the ſaid ſhip belongs to one or more of the ſubjects of the act whereof ſhall be put at the end of theſe preſents; as likewiſe that he will keep, and cauſe to be kept by his crew on board, the the marine ordinances and regulations, and enter in the proper office

a liſt, ſigned and witneſſed, containing the names and ſurnames, the places of birth and abode of the crew of his ſhip, and of all who ſhall embark on board her, whom he ſhall not take on board without the knowledge and permiſſion of the officers of the marine; and in every port or haven where he ſhall enter with his ſhip, he ſhall ſhew his preſent leave to the officers and judges of the marine; and ſhall give a faithful account to them of what paſſed and was done during his voyage; and he ſhall carry the colours, arms and enſign of the King or United States during his voyage. In witneſs whereof we have ſigned theſe preſents, and put the ſeal of our arms thereunto, and cauſed the ſame to be counterſigned by

at the day of Anno Domini

APPENDIX. No. II.

TREATY OF ALLIANCE,

EVENTUAL AND DEFENSIVE.

LOUIS, by the Grace of GOD, King of France and Navarre, to all who ſhall ſee theſe preſents, greeting:

THE Congreſs of the United States of North-America having, by their plenipotentiaries reſiding in France, propoſed to form with us a defenſive and eventual alliance: Willing to give the ſaid States an efficacious proof of the intereſt we take in their proſperity, we have determined to conclude the ſaid alliance. For theſe cauſes, and other good conſiderations thereto moving, we, repoſing entire confidence in the capacity and experience, zeal and fidelity for our ſervice, of our dear and beloved Conrad Alexander Gerard, royal ſyndic of the city of Straſburg, ſecretary of our council of ſtate, have nominated, commiſſioned and deputed, and by theſe preſents, ſigned with our hand, do nominate, commiſſion and depute him our plenipotentiary, giving him power and ſpecial command to act in this quality, and confer, negociate, treat and agree conjointly with the above-mentioned plenipotentiaries of the United States, inveſted in the like manner with powers in due form, to determine, conclude and ſign ſuch articles, conditions, conventions, declarations, definitive treaty, and any other acts whatever, as he ſhall judge proper to

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anſwer the end which we propoſe; promiſing on the faith and word of a king, to agree to, confirm and eſtabliſh for ever, to accompliſh and execute punctually, whatever our ſaid dear and beloved Conrad Alexander Gerard ſhall have ſtipulated and ſigned in virtue of the preſent power, without ever contravening it, or ſuffering it to be contravened for any cauſe and under any pretext whatever; as likewiſe to cauſe our letters of ratification to be made in due form, and to have them delivered, in order to be exchanged at the time that ſhall be agreed upon. For ſuch is our pleaſure. In teſtimony whereof we have ſet our ſeal to theſe preſents. Given at Verſailles, the thirtieth day of the month of January, in the year of grace, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſeventy-eight, and the fourth of our reign.

(Signed)

(L. S.) LOUIS.

By the King,

GRAVIER DE VERGENNES.

TREATY.

The Moſt Chriſtian King and the United States of North-America, to wit, New-Hampſhire, Maſſachuſetts Bay, Rhode-Iſland, Connecticut, New-York, New-Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina, and Georgia, having this day concluded a treaty of amity and commerce, for the reciprocal advantage of their ſubjects and citizens, have thought it neceſſary to take into conſideration the means of ſtrengthening thoſe engagements, and of rendering them uſeful to the ſafety and tranquillity of the two parties; particularly in caſe Great-Britain, in reſentment of that connection, and of the good correſpondence which is the object of the ſaid treaty, ſhould break the peace with France, either by direct hoſtilities, or by hindering her commerce and navigation in a manner contrary to the rights of nations, and the peace ſubſiſting between the two crowns. And his Majeſty and the ſaid United States having reſolved in that caſe to join their counſels and efforts againſt the enterpriſes of their common enemy;

The reſpective plenipotentiaries impowered to concert the clauſes and conditions proper to fulfil the ſaid intentions, have, after the moſt mature deliberation, concluded and determined on the following articles:

Article I. If war ſhould break out between France and Great-Britain during the continuance of the preſent war between the United States

States and England, his Majeſty and the ſaid United States ſhall make it a common cauſe, and aid each other mutually with their good offices, their counſels and their forces, according to the exigence of conjunctures, as becomes good and faithful allies.

Art. II. The eſſential and direct end of the preſent defenſive alliance is, to maintain effectually the liberty, ſovereignty and independence, abſolute and unlimited, of the ſaid United States, as well in matters of government as of commerce.

Art. III. The two contracting parties ſhall, each on its own part, and in the manner it may judge moſt proper, make all the efforts in its power againſt their common enemy, in order to attain the end propoſed.

Art. IV. The contracting parties agree, that in caſe either of them ſhould form any particular enterpriſe in which the concurrence of the other may be deſired, the party whoſe concurrence is deſired ſhall readily and with good faith join to act in concert for that purpoſe, as far as circumſtances and its own particular ſituation will permit; and in that caſe, they ſhall regulate, by a particular convention, the quantity and kind of ſuccour to be furniſhed, and the time and manner of its being brought into action, as well as the advantages which are to be its compenſation.

Art. V. If the United States ſhould think fit to attempt the reduction of the Britiſh power remaining in the northern parts of America, or the iſlands of Bermudas, thoſe countries or iſlands, in caſe of ſucceſs, ſhall be confederated with, or dependent upon, the ſaid United States.

Art. VI. The Moſt Chriſtian King renounces for ever the poſſeſſion of the iſlands of Bermudas, as well as of any part of the continent of North-America, which, before the treaty of Paris, in 1763, or in virtue of that treaty, were acknowledged to belong to the crown of Great-Britain, or to the United States, heretofore called Britiſh colonies, or which are at this time, or have lately been, under the power of the King and Crown of Great-Britain.

Art. VII. If his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty ſhall think proper to attack any of the iſlands ſituated in the Gulph of Mexico, or near that Gulph, which are at preſent under the power of Great-Britain, all the ſaid iſles, in caſe of ſucceſs, ſhall appertain to the Crown of France.

Art. VIII. Neither of the two parties ſhall conclude either truce or peace with Great-Britain, without the formal conſent of the other

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firſt obtained; and they mutually engage not to lay down their arms, until the independence of the United States ſhall have been formally or tacitly aſſured, by the treaty or treaties that ſhall terminate the war.

Art. IX. The contracting parties declare, that being reſolved to fulfil each on its own part, the clauſes and conditions of the preſent treaty of alliance, according to its own power and circumſtances, there ſhall be no after-claim of compenſation, on one ſide or the other, whatever may be the event of the war.

Art. X. The Moſt Chriſtian King and the United States agree to invite or admit other powers, who may have received injuries from England, to make a common cauſe with them, and to accede to the preſent alliance, under ſuch conditions as ſhall be freely agreed to, and ſettled between all the parties.

Art. XI. The two parties guarantee mutually, from the preſent time and for ever, againſt all other powers, to wit, the United States to his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, the preſent poſſeſſions of the Crown of France in America, as well as thoſe which it may acquire by the future treaty of peace; and his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty guarantees, on his part, to the United States, their liberty, ſovereignty and independence, abſolute and unlimited, as well in matters of government as commerce, and alſo their poſſeſſions, and the additions or conqueſts that their confederation may obtain during the war, from any of the dominions now or heretofore poſſeſſed by Great-Britain in North-America, conformable to the fifth and ſixth articles above written; the whole, as their poſſeſſion, ſhall be fixed and aſſured to the ſaid States, at the moment of the ceſſation of their preſent war with England.

Art. XII. In order to fix more preciſely the ſenſe and application of the preceding article, the contracting parties declare, that in caſe of a rupture between France and England, the reciprocal guarantee declared in the ſaid article ſhall have its full force and effect, the moment ſuch war ſhall break out; and if ſuch rupture ſhall not take place, the mutual obligations of the ſaid guarantee ſhall not commence until the moment of the ceſſation of the preſent war between the United States and England ſhall have aſcertained their poſſeſſions.

Art. XIII. The preſent treaty ſhall be ratified on both ſides, and ratifications ſhall be exchanged in the ſpace of ſix months, or ſooner, if poſſible.

In faith whereof the reſpective plenipotentiaries, to wit, on the part of the Moſt Chriſtian King, Conrad Alexander Gerard, royal ſyndic of the city of Straſburg, and ſecretary of his Majeſty's Council of State; and on the part of the United States, Benjamin Franklin, deputy to the General Congreſs from the State of Pennſylvania, and preſident of the Convention of ſaid State; Silas Deane, heretofore deputy from the State of Connecticut; and Arthur Lee, counſellor at law, have ſigned the above articles both in the French and Engliſh languages; declaring, nevertheleſs, that the preſent treaty was originally compoſed and concluded in the French language, and they have hereunto affixed their ſeals.

Done at Paris this ſixth day of February, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſeventy-eight.

(L. S.) C. A. GERARD,
(L. S.) B. FRANKLIN,
(L. S.) SILAS DEANE,
(L. S.) ARTHUR LEE.

APPENDIX. No. III.

CONVENTION BETWEEN FRANCE AND AMERICA.

By the Preſident of the United States of America.

A PROCLAMATION.

WHEREAS a convention, for defining and eſtabliſhing the functions and privileges of the reſpective conſuls and vice-conſuls of his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty and the ſaid United States, was concluded and ſigned by the plenipotentiaries of his ſaid Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty and of the ſaid United States, duly and reſpectively authoriſed for that purpoſe, which convention is in the form following, viz.

CONVENTION,

Between his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty and the United States of America, for the purpoſe of defining and eſtabliſhing the functions and privileges of their reſpective conſuls and vice-conſuls.

His Majeſty the Moſt Chriſtian King and the United States of America having, by the twenty-ninth article of the treaty of Amity and

and Commerce concluded between them, mutually granted the liberty of having, in their reſpective States and ports, conſuls, vice-conſuls, agents and commiſſaries; and being willing, in conſequence thereof, to define and eſtabliſh, in a reciprocal and permanent manner, the functions and privileges of conſuls and vice-conſuls, which they have judged it convenient to eſtabliſh of preference, his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty has nominated the Sieur Count of Montmorin, of St.Herent, marechal of his camps and armies, knight of his orders and of the Golden Fleece, his counſellor in all his councils, miniſter and ſecretary of ſtate and of his commandments and finances, having the department of foreign affairs; and the United States have nominated the Sieur Thomas Jefferſon, citizen of the United States of America, and their miniſter plenipotentiary near the king, who, after having communicated to each other their reſpective full powers, have agreed on what follows:

Art. I. The conſuls and vice-conſuls, named by the Moſt Chriſtian King and the United States, ſhall be bound to preſent their commiſſions according to the forms which ſhall be eſtabliſhed reſpectively by the Moſt Chriſtian King within his dominions, and by the Congreſs within the United States. There ſhall be delivered to them, without any charges, the exequatur neceſſary for the exerciſe of their functions; and on exhibiting the ſaid exequatur, the governors, commanders, heads of juſtice, bodies corporate, tribunals and other officers, having authority in the ports and places of their conſulates, ſhall cauſe them to enjoy, immediately and without difficulty, the pre-eminences, authority and privileges, reciprocally granted, without exacting from the ſaid conſuls and vice-conſuls any fees under any pretext whatever.

Art. II. The conſuls and vice-conſuls, and perſons attached to their functions, that is to ſay, their chancellors and ſecretaries, ſhall enjoy a full and entire immunity for their chancery and the papers which ſhall be therein contained. They ſhall be exempt from all perſonal ſervice, from ſoldier's billets, militia, watch, guard, guardianſhip, truſteeſhip, as well as from all duties, taxes, impoſitions, and charges whatſoever, except on the eſtate real and perſonal of which they may be the proprietors or poſſeſſors, which ſhall be ſubject to the taxes impoſed on the eſtates of all other individuals: and in all other inſtances, they ſhall be ſubject to the laws of the land, as the natives are. Thoſe of the ſaid conſuls and vice-conſuls, who ſhall exerciſe commerce, ſhall be reſpectively ſubject to all taxes,

charges and impoſitions, eſtabliſhed on other merchants. They ſhall place over the outward door of their houſe, the arms of their ſovereign; but this mark of indication ſhall not give to the ſaid houſe any privilege of aſylum for any perſon or property whatſoever.

Art. III. The reſpective conſuls and vice-conſuls may eſtabliſh agents in the different ports and places of their departments, where neceſſity ſhall require. Theſe agents may be choſen among the merchants, either national or foreign, and furniſhed with a commiſſion from one of the ſaid conſuls. They ſhall confine themſelves reſpectively to the rendering to their reſpective merchants, navigators and veſſels, all poſſible ſervice, and to inform the neareſt conſul of the wants of the ſaid merchants, navigators and veſſels—without the ſaid agents otherwiſe participating in the immunities, rights and privileges, attributed to conſuls and vice-conſuls—and without power, under any pretext whatever, to exact from the ſaid merchants any duty or emolument whatſoever.

Art. IV. The conſuls and vice-conſuls reſpectively may eſtabliſh a chancery, where ſhall be depoſited the conſular determinations, acts and proceedings, as alſo teſtaments, obligations, contracts and other acts, done by or between perſons of their nation, and effects left by deceaſed perſons, or ſaved from ſhipwreck. They may, conſequently, appoint fit perſons to act in the ſaid chancery; receive and ſwear them in; commit to them the cuſtody of the ſeal, and authority to ſeal commiſſions, ſentences and other conſular acts; and alſo to diſcharge the functions of notary and regiſter of the conſulate.

Art. V. The conſuls and vice-conſuls reſpectively ſhall have the excluſive right of receiving in their chancery, or on board of veſſels, the declarations and all other acts, which the captains, maſters, crews, paſſengers and merchants of their nation may chooſe to make there, even their teſtaments and other diſpoſals by laſt will: and the copies of the ſaid acts, duly authenticated by the ſaid conſuls or vice-conſuls, under the ſeal of the conſulate, ſhall receive faith in law, equally as their originals would, in all the tribunals of the dominions of the Moſt Chriſtian King and of the United States. They ſhall alſo have, and excluſively, in caſe of the abſence of the teſtamentary executor, adminiſtrator, or legal heir, the right to inventory, liquidate and proceed to the ſale of the perſonal eſtate left by ſubjects or citizens of their nation, who ſhall die within the extent of their conſulate: they ſhall proceed therein with the aſſiſtance of

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two merchants of their nation, or, for want of them, of any other at their choice; and ſhall cauſe to be depoſited in their chancery the effects and papers of the ſaid eſtates: and no officer, military, judiciary, or of the police of the country, ſhall diſturb them or interfere therein, in any manner whatſoever: but the ſaid conſuls and vice-conſuls ſhall not deliver up the ſaid effects, nor the proceeds thereof, to the lawful heirs, or to their order, till they ſhall have cauſed to be paid all debts which the deceaſed ſhall have contracted in the country: for which purpoſe the creditors ſhall have a right to attach the ſaid effects in their hands, as they might in thoſe of any other individual whatever, and proceed to obtain ſale of them till payment of what ſhall be lawfully due to them. When the debts ſhall not have been contracted by judgment, deed or note, the ſignature whereof ſhall be known, payment ſhall not be ordered but on the creditor's giving ſufficient ſurety, reſident in the country, to refund the ſums he ſhall have unduly received, principal, intereſt and coſts: which ſurety, nevertheleſs, ſhall ſtand duly diſcharged after the term of one year in time of peace, and of two in time of war, if the demand in diſcharge cannot be formed before the end of this term, againſt the heirs who ſhall preſent themſelves. And in order that the heirs may not unjuſtly be kept out of the effects of the deceaſed, the conſuls and vice-conſuls ſhall notify his death in ſome of the gazettes publiſhed within their conſulate; and that they ſhall retain the ſaid effects in their hands ſeven months, to anſwer all demands which ſhall be preſented; and they ſhall be bound, after this delay, to deliver to the perſons ſucceeding thereto, what ſhall be more than ſufficient for the demands which ſhall have been formed.

Art. VI. The conſuls and vice-conſuls reſpectively ſhall receive the declarations, proteſts and reports, of all captains and maſters of their reſpective nations, on account of average loſſes ſuſtained at ſea; and theſe captains and maſters ſhall lodge in the chancery of the ſaid conſuls and vice-conſuls, the acts which they may have made in other ports on account of the accidents which may have happened to them on their voyage. If a ſubject of the Moſt Chriſtian King, and a citizen of the United States, or a foreigner, are intereſted in the ſaid cargo, the average ſhall be ſettled by the tribunals of the country, and not by the conſuls or vice-conſuls; but when only the ſubjects or citizens of their own nation ſhall be intereſted, the reſpective conſuls or vice-conſuls ſhall appoint ſkilful perſons to ſettle the damages and average.

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Art. VII. In cafes where by tempeft, or other accident, French ſhips or veſſels ſhall be ſtranded on the coaſts of the United States; and ſhips or veſſels of the United States ſhall be ſtranded on the coaſts of the dominions of the Moſt Chriſtian King; the conſul or vice-conſul, neareſt to the place of ſhipwreck, ſhall do whatever he may judge proper, as well for the purpoſe of ſaving the ſaid ſhip or veſſel, its cargo and appurtenances, as for the ſtoring and ſecurity of the effects and merchandiſe ſaved. He may take an inventory of them, without the intermeddling of any officers of the military, of the cuſtoms, of juſtice, or of the police of the country, otherwiſe than to give to the conſuls, vice-conſuls, captain and crew of the veſſel, ſhipwrecked or ſtranded, all the ſuccour and favour which they ſhall aſk of them, either for the expedition and ſecurity of the ſaving and of the effects ſaved, as to prevent all diſturbance. And in order to prevent all kinds of diſpute and diſcuſſion, in the ſaid cafes of ſhipwreck, it is agreed, that when there ſhall be no conſul or vice-conſul to attend to the ſaving of the wreck, or that the reſidence of the ſaid conſul or vice-conſul (he not being at the place of the wreck) ſhall be more diſtant from the ſaid place, than that of the competent judge of the country, the latter ſhall immediately proceed therein with all the diſpatch, certainty and precautions, preſcribed by the reſpective laws; but the ſaid territorial judge ſhall retire, on the arrival of the conſul or vice-conſul, and ſhall deliver over to him the report of his proceedings, the expenſes of which the conſul or vice-conſul ſhall cauſe to be reimburſed to him, as well as thoſe of ſaving the wreck. The merchandiſe and effects ſaved ſhall be depoſited in the neareſt cuſtom-houſe, or other place of ſafety, with the inventory thereof, which ſhall have been made by the conſul or vice-conſuls, or by the judge who ſhall have proceeded in their abſence, that the ſaid effects and merchandiſe may be afterwards delivered, (after levying therefrom the coſts) and without form of proceſs to the owners, who, being furniſhed with an order for their delivery from the neareſt conſul or vice-conſul, ſhall re-claim them by themſelves, or by their order, either for the purpoſe of re-exporting ſuch merchandiſe, in which caſe they ſhall pay no kind of duties of exportation; or for that of ſelling them in the country, if they be not prohibited there; and in this laſt caſe, the ſaid merchandiſe, if they be damaged, ſhall be allowed an abatement of entrance duties, proportioned to the damage they have ſuſtained, which

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ſhall be aſcertained by the affidavits taken at the time the veſſel was wrecked or ſtruck.

Art. VIII. The conſuls or vice-conſuls ſhall exerciſe police over all the veſſels of their reſpective nations; and ſhall have, on board the ſaid veſſels, all power and juriſdiction in civil matters: in all the diſputes which may there ariſe, they ſhall have an entire inſpection over the ſaid veſſels, their crews, and the changes and ſubſtitutions there to be made: for which purpoſe they may go on board the ſaid veſſels whenever they may judge it neceſſary. It being well underſtood, that the functions hereby allowed ſhall be confined to the interior of the veſſels, and that they ſhall not take place in any caſe which ſhall have any interference with the police of the ports where the ſaid veſſels ſhall be.

Art. IX. The conſuls and vice-conſuls may cauſe to be arreſted the captains, officers, mariners, ſailors, and all other perſons, being part of the crews of the veſſels of their reſpective nations, who ſhall have deſerted from the ſaid veſſels, in order to ſend them back and tranſport them out of the country. For which purpoſe, the ſaid conſuls and vice-conſuls ſhall addreſs themſelves to the courts, judges, and officers competent; and ſhall demand the ſaid deſerters in writing, proving by an exhibition of the regiſters of the veſſel or ſhip's roll, that thoſe men were part of the ſaid crews: and on this demand ſo proved, (ſaving, however, where the contrary is proved) the delivery ſhall not be refuſed: and there ſhall be given all aid and aſſiſtance to the ſaid conſuls and vice-conſuls for the ſearch, ſeizure and arreſt of the ſaid deſerters, who ſhall even be detained and kept in the priſons of the country, at their requeſt and expenſe, until they ſhall have found an opportunity of ſending them back. But if they be not ſent back within three months, to be counted from the day of their arreſt, they ſhall be ſet at liberty, and ſhall be no more arreſted for the ſame cauſe.

Art. X. In caſes where the reſpective ſubjects or citizens ſhall have committed any crime, or breach of the peace, they ſhall be amenable to the judges of the country.

Art. XI. When the ſaid offenders ſhall be a part of the crew of a veſſel of their nation, and ſhall have withdrawn themſelves on board the ſaid veſſel, they may be there ſeized and arreſted by order of the judges of the country: theſe ſhall give notice thereof to the conſul or vice-conſul, who may repair on board, if he thinks proper: but

this notification ſhall not, in any caſe, delay execution or the order in queſtion. The perſons arreſted ſhall not afterwards be ſet at liberty, until the conſul or vice-conſul ſhall have been notified thereof; and they ſhall be delivered to him, if he requires it, to be put again on board of the veſſel in which they were arreſted, or of others of their nation, and to be ſent out of the country.

Art. XII. All differences and ſuits between the ſubjects of the Moſt Chriſtian King in the United States, or between the citizens of the United States within the dominions of the Moſt Chriſtian King, and particularly all diſputes relative to the wages and terms of engagement of the crews of the reſpective veſſels, and all differences of whatever nature they may be, which may ariſe between the privates of the ſaid crews, or between any of them and their captains, or between the captains of different veſſels of their nation, ſhall be determined by the reſpective conſuls and vice-conſuls, either by a reference to arbitrators, or by a ſummary judgment, and without coſts. No officer of the country, civil or military, ſhall interfere therein, or take any part whatever in the matter; and the appeals from the ſaid conſular ſentences ſhall be carried before the tribunals of France, or of the United States, to whom it may appertain to take cognizance thereof.

Art. XIII. The general utility of commerce having cauſed to be eſtabliſhed, within the dominions of the Moſt Chriſtian King, particular tribunals and forms for expediting the deciſion of commercial affairs, the merchants of the United States ſhall enjoy the benefit of theſe eſtabliſhments; and the Congreſs of the United States will provide, in the manner moſt conformable to its laws, for the eſtabliſhment of equivalent advantages in favour of the French merchants, for the prompt diſpatch and deciſion of affairs of the ſame nature.

XIV. The ſubjects of the Moſt Chriſtian King, and citizens of the United States, who ſhall prove by legal evidence, that they are of the ſaid nations reſpectively, ſhall, in conſequence, enjoy an exemption from all perſonal ſervice in the place of their ſettlement.

XV. If any other nation acquires, by virtue of any convention whatever, treatment more favourable with reſpect to the conſular pre-eminences, powers, authority and privileges, the conſuls and vice-conſuls of the Moſt Chriſtian King, or of the United States, reciprocally ſhall participate therein, agreeably to the terms ſtipulated

by

by the ſecond, third and fourth articles of the treaty of Amity and commerce concluded between the Moſt Chriſtian King and the United States.

Art. XVI. The preſent convention ſhall be in full force during the term of twelve years, to be counted from the day of the exchange of ratifications, which ſhall be given in proper form, and exchanged on both ſides within the ſpace of one year, or ſooner if poſſible. In faith whereof, we, miniſters plenipotentiary, have ſigned the preſent convention, and have thereto ſet the ſeal of our arms.

Done at Verſailles the fourteenth of November, one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-eight.

Signed L. C. De MONTMORIN, (L. S.)
THOMAS JEFFERSON. (L. S.)

PROCLAMATION.

And whereas the ſaid convention has been duly ratified and confirmed by me on the one part, with the advice and conſent of the ſenate, and by his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty on the other, and the ſaid ratifications were duly exchanged at Paris on the firſt day of January in the preſent year. Now, therefore, to the end that the ſaid convention may be obſerved and performed with good faith on the part of the United States, I have ordered the premiſes to be made public, and I do hereby enjoin and require all perſons bearing office, civil or military, within the United States, and all others, citizens or inhabitants thereof, or being within the ſame, faithfully to obſerve and fulfil the ſaid convention, and every clauſe and article thereof.

In teſtimony whereof I have cauſed the ſeal of the United States to be affixed to theſe preſents, and ſigned the ſame with my hand. Given at the city of New-York, the ninth day of April, in the year of our Lord one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety, and of the ſovereignty and independence of the United States the fourteenth.

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

By the Preſident,
THOMAS JEFFERSON.

APPENDIX. No. IV.

THE DEFINITIVE TREATY

BETWEEN

GREAT-BRITAIN AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Signed at Paris, September 3, 1783.

In the name of the moſt holy and undivided Trinity.

IT having pleaſed the Divine Providence to diſpoſe the hearts of the moſt ſerene and moſt potent prince George the Third, by the grace of God, King of Great-Britain, France and Ireland, defender of the faith, Duke of Brunſwick and Lunenburgh, arch-treaſurer and prince elector of the holy Roman empire, &c. and of the United States of America, to forget all paſt miſunderſtandings and differences, that have unhappily interrupted the good correſpondence and friendſhip which they mutually wiſh to reſtore; and to eſtabliſh ſuch a beneficial and ſatisfactory intercourſe between the two countries, upon the ground of reciprocal advantages and mutual convenience, as may promote and ſecure to both perpetual peace and harmony; and having, for this deſirable end, already laid the foundation of peace and reconciliation, by the proviſional articles ſigned at Paris, on the 30th of November, 1782, by the commiſſioners empowered on each part, which articles were agreed to be inſerted in, and to conſtitute the treaty of peace propoſed to be concluded between the Crown of Great-Britain and the ſaid United States, but which treaty was not to be concluded until terms of peace ſhould be agreed upon between Great-Britain and France, and his Britannic Majeſty ſhould be ready to conclude ſuch treaty accordingly; and the treaty between Great-Britain and France having ſince been concluded, his Britannic Majeſty and the United States of America, in order to carry into full effect the proviſional articles above mentioned, according to the tenor thereof, have conſtituted and appointed, that is to ſay, his Britannic Majeſty on his part, David Hartley,

Hartley, Eſq. member of the parliament of Great-Britain; and the ſaid United States on their part, John Adams, Eſq. late a commiſſioner of the United States of America, at the court of Verſailles, late delegate in Congreſs from the State of Maſſachuſetts, and chief juſtice of the ſaid State, and miniſter plenipotentiary of the ſaid United States, to their High Mightineſſes the States-General of the United Netherlands; Benjamin Franklin, Eſq. late delegate in Congreſs from the State of Pennſylvania, preſident of the convention of the ſaid State, and miniſter plenipotentiary from the United States of America at the court of Verſailles; and John Jay, Eſq. late preſident of Congreſs, chief juſtice of the State of New-York, and miniſter plenipotentiary from the ſaid United States at the court of Madrid; to be the plenipotentiaries for concluding and ſigning the preſent Definitive Treaty; who, after having reciprocally communicated their reſpective full powers, have agreed upon and confirmed the following articles:

Article I. His Britannic Majeſty acknowledges the ſaid United States, viz. New-Hampſhire, Maſſachuſetts-Bay, Rhode-Iſland and Providence plantations, Connecticut, New-York, New-Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina and Georgia, to be free, ſovereign and independent States; that he treats with them as ſuch, and for himſelf, his heirs and ſucceſſors, relinquiſhes all claims to the government, propriety, and territorial rights of the ſame, and every part thereof.

Art. II. And that all diſputes, which might ariſe in future, on the ſubject of the boundaries of the ſaid United States, may be prevented, it is hereby agreed and declared, that the following are and ſhall be their boundaries, viz. from the north-weſt angle of Nova-Scotia, viz. That angle which is formed by a line drawn due north from the ſource of St. Croix river to the highlands, along the ſaid highlands, which divide thoſe rivers that empty themſelves into the river St. Lawrence from thoſe which fall into the Atlantic ocean, to the north weſternmoſt head of Connecticut river; thence down along the middle of that river to the forty-fifth degree of north latitude; from thence by a line due weſt on ſaid latitude, until it ſtrikes the river Iroquois or Cataraquy; thence along the middle of the ſaid river into lake Ontario; through the middle of ſaid lake until it ſtrikes the communication by water between that lake and lake Erie; thence along the middle of ſaid communication into lake Erie; through the middle of ſaid lake until it arrives at the water com-

communication between that lake and lake Huron; thence along the middle of ſaid water communication; thence through the middle of ſaid lake to the water communication between that lake and lake Superior: thence through lake Superior northward of the iſles Royal and Philipeaux to the Long lake; thence through the middle of ſaid Long lake and the water communication between it and the lake of the Woods, to the ſaid lake of the Woods; thence through the ſaid lake to the moſt north-weſtern point thereof, and from thence in a due weſt courſe to the river Miſſiſſippi; thence by a line to be drawn along the middle of the ſaid river Miſſiſſippi until it ſhall interſect the northernmoſt part of the thirty-firſt degree of north latitude. South, by a line to be drawn due eaſt from the determination of the line laſt mentioned in the latitude of thirty-one degrees north of the equator, to the middle of the river Apalachicola or Catahouche; thence along the middle thereof, to its junction with the Flint river; thence ſtrait to the head of St. Mary's river; and thence down along the middle of St. Mary's river to the Atlantic ocean. Eaſt, by a line to be drawn along the middle of the river St. Croix, from its mouth in the bay of Fundy, to its ſource, and from its ſource directly north to the aforeſaid highlands, which divide the rivers that fall into the Atlantic ocean, from thoſe which fall into the river St. Lawrence, comprehending all iſlands within twenty leagues of any part of the ſhores of the United States, and lying between lines to be drawn due eaſt from the points where the aforeſaid boundaries between Nova-Scotia on the one part, and Eaſt-Florida on the other, ſhall reſpectively touch the bay of Fundy, and the Atlantic ocean, excepting ſuch iſlands as now are, or heretofore have been, within the limits of the ſaid province of Nova-Scotia.

Art. III. It is agreed, that the people of the United States ſhall continue to enjoy, unmoleſted, the right to take fiſh of every kind on the Grand Bank, and on all the other banks of Newfoundland, alſo in the gulph of St. Lawrence, and at all other places in the ſea, where the inhabitants of both countries uſed at any time heretofore to fiſh. And alſo, that the inhabitants of the United States ſhall have liberty to take fiſh of every kind on ſuch part of the coaſt of Newfoundland, as Britiſh fiſhermen ſhall uſe (but not to dry or cure the ſame on that iſland) and alſo on the coaſts, bays and creeks, of all other of his Britannic Majeſty's dominions in America; and that the American fiſhermen ſhall have liberty to dry and cure fiſh in any of the unſettled bays, harbours and creeks, of Nova-Scotia,

Magdalen

Magdalen iſlands, and Labrador, ſo long as the ſame ſhall remain unſettled; but ſo ſoon as the ſame or either of them ſhall be ſettled, it ſhall not be lawful for the ſaid fiſhermen to dry or cure fiſh at ſuch ſettlement, without a previous agreement for that purpoſe with the inhabitants, proprietors, or poſſeſſors of the ground.

Art. IV. It is agreed, that the creditors on either ſide ſhall meet with no lawful impediment to the recovery of the full value, in ſterling money, of all bona fide debts heretofore contracted.

Art. V. It is agreed, that Congreſs ſhall earneſtly recommend it to the legiſlatures of the reſpective States, to provide for the reſtitution of all eſtates, rights and properties, which have been confiſcated, belonging to real Britiſh ſubjects; and alſo of the eſtates, rights and properties, of perſons reſident in diſtricts in poſſeſſion of his Majeſty's arms, and who have not borne arms againſt the ſaid United States; and that perſons of any other deſcription ſhall have free liberty to go to any part or parts of the Thirteen United States, and therein to remain twelve months unmoleſted, in their endeavours to obtain the reſtitution of ſuch of their eſtates, rights and properties, as may have been confiſcated; and that Congreſs ſhall alſo earneſtly recommend to the ſeveral States, a re-conſideration and reviſion of all acts or laws reſpecting the premiſes, ſo as to render the ſaid acts or laws perfectly conſiſtent, not only with juſtice and equity, but with that ſpirit of conciliation, which, on the return of the bleſſings of peace, ſhould univerſally prevail: and that Congreſs ſhall alſo earneſtly recommend to the ſeveral States, that the eſtates, rights and properties, of ſuch laſt-mentioned perſons ſhall be reſtored to them, they refunding to any perſons who may now be in poſſeſſion, the bona fide price (where any has been given) which ſuch perſons may have paid, on purchaſing any of the ſaid lands, rights or properties, ſince the confiſcation. And it is agreed, that all perſons, who may have any intereſt in confiſcated lands, either by debts, marriage-ſettlements, or otherwiſe, ſhall meet with no lawful impediment in the proſecution of their juſt rights.

Art. VI. That there ſhall be no future confiſcations made, nor any proſecutions commenced, againſt any perſon or perſons, for, or by reaſon of the part which he or they may have taken in the preſent war: and that no perſon ſhall, on that account, ſuffer any further loſs or damage, either in his perſon, liberty or property: and that thoſe who may be in confinement on ſuch charges, at the time of the ratification

fication of the treaty in America, ſhall be immediately ſet at liberty, and the proſecution, ſo commenced, be diſcontinued.

Art. VII. There ſhall be a firm and perpetual peace between his Britannic Majeſty and the ſaid States, and between the ſubjects of the one and the citizens of the other; wherefore all hoſtilities, both by ſea and land, ſhall from henceforth ceaſe; all priſoners on both ſides ſhall be ſet at liberty; and his Britannic Majeſty ſhall, with all convenient ſpeed, and without cauſing any deſtruction, or carrying away any negroes, or other property of the American inhabitants, withdraw all his armies, garriſons and fleets, from the ſaid United States, and from every poſt, place and harbour, within the ſame, leaving in all fortifications the American artillery that may be therein; and ſhall alſo order and cauſe all archives, records, deeds and papers, belonging to any of the ſaid States, or their citizens, which, in the courſe of the war, may have fallen into the hands of his officers, to be forthwith reſtored, and delivered to the proper States and perſons to whom they belong.

Art. VIII. The *navigation of the river Miſſiſſippi, from its ſource to the ocean, ſhall for ever remain free and open to* the ſubjects of Great-Britain and *the citizens of the United States.*

Art. IX. In caſe it ſhould ſo happen, that any place or territory belonging to Great-Britain, or to the United States, ſhould have been conquered by the arms of either from the other, before the arrival of the ſaid proviſional articles in America, it is agreed, that the ſame ſhall be reſtored without difficulty, and without requiring compenſation.

Art. X. The ſolemn ratifications of the preſent treaty, expedited in good and due form, ſhall be exchanged between the contracting parties in the ſpace of ſix months, or ſooner, if poſſible, to be computed from the day of the ſignature of the preſent treaty. In witneſs whereof, we the underſigned, their miniſters plenipotentiary, have, in their name, and in virtue of our full powers, ſigned with our hands the preſent Definitive Treaty, and cauſed the ſeals of our arms to be affixed thereto. Done at Paris, September 3, 1783.

(L. S.) JOHN ADAMS,
(L. S.) DAVID HARTLEY,
(L. S.) B. FRANKLIN,
(L. S.) JOHN JAY.

APPENDIX. No. V.

TREATY OF AMITY AND COMMERCE

BETWEEN

THEIR HIGH MIGHTINESSES THE STATES GENERAL OF THE UNITED NETHERLANDS, AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA;

(TO WIT)

NEW-HAMPSHIRE, MASSACHUSETTS, RHODE-ISLAND AND PROVIDENCE PLANTATIONS, CONNECTICUT, NEW-YORK, NEW-JERSEY, PENNSYLVANIA, DELAWARE, MARYLAND, VIRGINIA, NORTH-CAROLINA, SOUTH-CAROLINA, AND GEORGIA.

THEIR High Mightineſſes the States-General of the United Netherlands, and the United States of America, to wit, New-Hampſhire, Maſſachuſetts, Rhode-Iſland and Providence plantations, Connecticut, New-York, New-Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina and Georgia, deſiring to aſcertain, in a permanent and equitable manner, the rules to be obſerved relative to the commerce and correſpondence which they intend to eſtabliſh between their reſpective States, countries and inhabitants, have judged, that the ſaid end cannot be better obtained, than by eſtabliſhing the moſt perfect equality and reciprocity for the baſis of their agreement, and by avoiding all thoſe burthenſome preferences, which are uſually the ſources of debate, embarraſſment and diſcontent; by leaving alſo each party at liberty to make, reſpecting commerce and navigation, ſuch ulterior regulations, as it ſhall find moſt convenient to itſelf; and by founding the advantages of commerce ſolely upon reciprocal utility, and the juſt rules of free intercourſe; reſerving withal to each party the liberty of admitting, at its pleaſure, other nations to a participation of the ſame advantages.

On

On theſe principles, their ſaid High Mightineſſes the States-General of the United Netherlands have named for their plenipotentiaries, from the midſt of their aſſembly, Meſſieurs their deputies for the foreign affairs; and the ſaid United States of America, on their part, have furniſhed with full powers Mr. John Adams, late commiſſioner of the United States of America at the court of Verſailles, heretofore delegate in Congreſs from the State of Maſſachuſetts bay, and chief juſtice of the ſaid State, who have agreed and concluded as follows: to wit,

Article I. There ſhall be a firm, inviolable and univerſal peace, and ſincere friendſhip, between their High Mightineſſes the Lords the States-General of the United Netherlands and the United States of America, and between the ſubjects and inhabitants of the ſaid parties, and between the countries, iſlands, cities and places, ſituated under the juriſdiction of the ſaid United Netherlands and the ſaid United States of America, their ſubjects and inhabitants of every degree, without exception of perſons or places.

Art. II. The ſubjects of the ſaid States-General of the United Netherlands ſhall pay in the ports, havens, roads, countries, iſlands, cities or places of the United States of America, or any of them, no other nor greater duties or impoſts, of whatever nature or denomination they may be, than thoſe which the nations the moſt favoured are or ſhall be obliged to pay: and they ſhall enjoy all the rights, liberties, privileges, immunities and exemptions in trade, navigation and commerce, which the ſaid nations do, or ſhall enjoy, whether in paſſing from one port to another in the ſaid States, or in going from any of thoſe ports to any foreign port of the world, or from any foreign port of the world to any of thoſe ports.

Art. III. The ſubjects and inhabitants of the ſaid United States of America ſhall pay in the ports, havens, roads, countries, iſlands, cities or places, of the ſaid United Netherlands, or any of them, no other, nor greater duties or impoſts, of whatever nature or denomination they may be, than thoſe which the nations the moſt favoured are or ſhall be obliged to pay: and they ſhall enjoy all the rights, liberties, privileges, immunities and exemptions in trade, navigation and commerce, which the ſaid nations do, or ſhall enjoy, whether in paſſing from one port to another in the ſaid States, or from any one towards any one of thoſe ports, from or to any foreign port of the world. And the United States of America, with their ſubjects and inhabitants, ſhall leave to thoſe of their High Mighti-

neſſes,

neſſes, the peaceable enjoyment of their rights in the countries, iſlands and ſeas, in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, without any hindrance or moleſtation.

Art. IV. There ſhall be an entire and perfect liberty of conſcience allowed to the ſubjects and inhabitants of each party, and to their families: and no one ſhall be moleſted in regard to his worſhip, provided he ſubmits, as to the public demonſtration of it, to the laws of the country. There ſhall be given moreover liberty, when any ſubjects or inhabitants of either party ſhall die in the territory of the other, to bury them in the uſual burying places, or in decent and convenient grounds, to be appointed for that purpoſe, as occaſion ſhall require. And the dead bodies of thoſe who are buried ſhall not in any wiſe be moleſted: and the two contracting parties ſhall provide, each one in his juriſdiction, that their reſpective ſubjects and inhabitants may henceforward obtain the requiſite certificates, in caſes of deaths, in which they ſhall be intereſted.

Art. V. Their High Mightineſſes the States-General of the United Netherlands, and the United States of America, ſhall endeavour, by all the means in their power, to defend and protect all veſſels and other effects belonging to their ſubjects and inhabitants reſpectively, or to any of them, in their ports, roads, havens, internal ſeas, paſſes, rivers, and as far as their juriſdiction extends at ſea; and to recover, and cauſe to be reſtored to the true proprietors, their agents or attornies, all ſuch veſſels and effects which ſhall be taken under their juriſdiction: and their veſſels of war and convoys, in caſes when they may have a common enemy, ſhall take under their protection all the veſſels belonging to the ſubjects and inhabitants of either party, which ſhall not be laden with contraband goods, according to the deſcription which ſhall be made of them hereafter, for places with which one of the parties is in peace, and the other at war, nor deſtined for any place blocked, and which ſhall hold the ſame courſe, or follow the ſame route: and they ſhall defend ſuch veſſels, as long as they ſhall hold the ſame courſe, or follow the ſame route, againſt all attacks, force and violence of the common enemy, in the ſame manner as they ought to protect and defend the veſſels belonging to their own reſpective ſubjects.

Art. VI. The ſubjects of the contracting parties may, on one ſide and on the other, in the reſpective countries and States, diſpoſe of their effects by teſtament, donation or otherwiſe; and their heirs, ſubjects of one of the parties, and reſiding in the country of the

other, or elſewhere, ſhall receive ſuch ſucceſſions, even *ab inteſtato*, whether in perſon, or by their attorney or ſubſtitute, even although they ſhall not have obtained letters of naturalization, without having the effect of *ſuch commiſſion* conteſted under pretext of any rights or prerogatives of any province, city or private perſon: and if the heirs, to whom ſuch ſucceſſions may have fallen, ſhall be minors, the tutors, or curators, eſtabliſhed by the judge domiciliary, of the ſaid minors, may govern, direct, adminiſter, ſell, and alienate the effects fallen to the ſaid minors by inheritance; and in general, in relation to the ſaid ſucceſſions and effects, uſe all the rights and fulfil all the functions which belong, by the diſpoſition of the laws, to guardians, tutors and curators; provided, nevertheleſs, that this diſpoſition cannot take place, but in caſes where the teſtator ſhall not have named guardians, tutors, curators by teſtament, codicil or other legal inſtrument.

Art. VII. It ſhall be lawful and free for the ſubjects of each party to employ ſuch advocates, attornies, notaries, ſolicitors or factors, as they ſhall judge proper.

Art. VIII. Merchants, maſters and owners of ſhips, mariners, men of all kinds, ſhips and veſſels, and all merchandiſes and goods in general, and effects, of one of the confederates, or of the ſubjects thereof, ſhall not be ſeiſed or detained in any of the countries, lands, iſlands, cities, places, ports, ſhores or dominions whatſoever of the other confederate, for any military expedition, public or private uſe of any one, by arreſts, violence, or any colour thereof; much leſs ſhall it be permitted to the ſubjects of either party to take, or extort by force, any thing from the ſubjects of the other party, without the conſent of the owner; which, however, is not to be underſtood of ſeiſures, detentions and arreſts, which ſhall be made by the command and authority of juſtice, and by the ordinary methods, on account of debts or crimes, in reſpect whereof the proceedings muſt be by way of law, according to the forms of juſtice.

Art. IX. It is further agreed and concluded, that it ſhall be wholly free for all merchants, commanders of ſhips, and other ſubjects and inhabitants of the contracting parties, in every place ſubjected to the juriſdiction of the two powers reſpectively, to manage, themſelves, their own buſineſs: and moreover, as to the uſe of interpreters or brokers, as alſo in relation to the loading or unloading of their veſſels, and every thing which has relation thereto, they ſhall be, on one ſide and on the other, conſidered and treated upon

the footing of natural ſubjects, or, at leaſt, upon an equality with the moſt favoured nation.

Art. X. The merchant ſhips of either of the parties, coming from the port of an enemy, or from their own, or a neutral port, may navigate freely towards any port of an enemy of the other ally. They ſhall nevertheleſs be held, whenever it ſhall be required, to exhibit, as well upon the high ſeas as in the ports, their ſea-letters and other documents deſcribed in the twenty-fifth article, ſtating expreſsly that their effects are not of the number of thoſe which are prohibited as contraband. And not having any contraband goods for an enemy's port, they may freely and without hindrance purſue their voyage towards the port of an enemy. Nevertheleſs, it ſhall not be required to examine the papers of veſſels convoyed by veſſels of war, but credence ſhall be given to the word of the officer who ſhall conduct the convoy.

Art. XI. If by exhibiting the ſea-letters and other documents deſcribed more particularly in the twenty-fifth article of this treaty, the other party ſhall diſcover there are any of thoſe ſorts of goods which are declared prohibited and contraband, and that they are conſigned for a port under the obedience of his enemy; it ſhall not be lawful to break up the hatches of ſuch ſhip, nor to open any cheſt, coffer, packs, caſks, or other veſſels found therein, or to remove the ſmalleſt parcel of her goods, whether the ſaid veſſel belongs to the ſubjects of their High Mightineſſes the States-General of the United Netherlands, or to the ſubjects or inhabitants of the ſaid United States of America, unleſs the lading be brought on ſhore in preſence of the officers of the court of admiralty, and an inventory thereof made; but there ſhall be no allowance to ſell, exchange or alienate the ſame, until after that due and lawful proceſs ſhall have been had againſt ſuch prohibited goods of contraband, and the court of admiralty, by a ſentence pronounced, ſhall have confiſcated the ſame; ſaving always as well the ſhip itſelf, as any other goods found therein, which are to be eſteemed free, and may not be detained on pretence of their being infected by the prohibited goods, much leſs ſhall they be confiſcated as lawful prize: but on the contrary, when, by the viſitation at land, it ſhall be found, that there are no contraband goods in the veſſel, and it ſhall not appear by the papers, that he who has taken and carried in the veſſel has been able to diſcover any there, he ought to be condemned in all the charges, damages, and intereſts of them, which he ſhall have cauſed, both to the owners

of veſſels, and to the owners and freighters of cargoes with which they ſhall be loaded, by his temerity in taking and carrying them in; declaring moſt expreſsly the free veſſels ſhall aſſure the liberty of the effects with which they ſhall be loaded, and that this liberty ſhall extend itſelf equally to the perſons who ſhall be found in a free veſſel, who may not be taken out of her, unleſs they are military men, actually in the ſervice of an enemy.

Art. XII. On the contrary, it is agreed, that whatever ſhall be found to be laden by the ſubjects and inhabitants of either party, on any ſhip belonging to the enemies of the other, or to their ſubjects, although it be not comprehended under the ſort of prohibited goods, the whole may be confiſcated in the ſame manner as if it belonged to the enemy; except, nevertheleſs, ſuch effects and merchandiſes as were put on board ſuch veſſel before the declaration of war, or in the ſpace of ſix months after it; which effects ſhall not be in any manner ſubject to confiſcation, but ſhall be faithfully and without delay reſtored in nature to the owners, who ſhall claim them, or cauſe them to be claimed, before the confiſcation and ſale; as alſo their proceeds, if the claim could not be made but in the ſpace of eight months after the ſale, which ought to be public: provided, nevertheleſs, that if the ſaid merchandiſes are contraband, it ſhall by no means be lawful to tranſport them afterwards to any port belonging to enemies.

Art. XIII. And that more effectual care may be taken for the ſecurity of ſubjects and people of either party, that they do not ſuffer moleſtation from the veſſels of war, or privateers of the other party, it ſhall be forbidden to all commanders of veſſels of war, and other armed veſſels of the ſaid States-General of the United Netherlands, and the ſaid United States of America, as well as to all their officers, ſubjects and people, to give any offence, or do any damage to thoſe of the other party: and if they act to the contrary, they ſhall be, upon the firſt complaint which ſhall be made of it, being found guilty, after a juſt examination, puniſhed by their proper judges; and moreover, obliged to make ſatisfaction for all damages and intereſt thereof, by reparation, under pain and obligation of their perſons and goods.

Art. XIV. For further determining of what has been ſaid, all captains of privateers, or fitters out of veſſels armed for war, under commiſſion, and on account of private perſons, ſhall be held before their departure, to give ſufficient caution before competent judges, either

either to be entirely reſponſible for the malverſations which they may commit in their cruizes or voyages, as well as for the contraventions of their captains and officers againſt the preſent treaty, and againſt the ordinances and edicts which ſhall be publiſhed in conſequence of, and in conformity to it, under pain of forfeiture and nullity of the ſaid commiſſions.

Art. XV. All veſſels and merchandiſes, of whatſoever nature, which ſhall be reſcued out of the hands of any pirates or robbers, navigating the high ſeas without requiſite commiſſions, ſhall be brought into ſome port of one of the two States, and depoſited in the hands of the officers of that port, in order to be reſtored entire to the true proprietor, as ſoon as due and ſufficient proofs ſhall be made concerning the property thereof.

Art. XVI. If any ſhips or veſſels, belonging to either of the parties, their ſubjects or people, ſhall, within the coaſts or dominions of the other, ſtick upon the ſands, or be wrecked, or ſuffer any other ſea damage, all friendly aſſiſtance and relief ſhall be given to the perſons ſhipwrecked, or ſuch as ſhall be in danger thereof; and the veſſels, effects and merchandiſes, or the part of them which ſhall have been ſaved, or the proceeds of them, if, being periſhable, they ſhall have been ſold, being claimed within a year and a day by the maſters or owners, or their agents or attornies, ſhall be reſtored, paying only the reaſonable charges, and that which muſt be paid in the ſame caſe for the ſalvage by the proper ſubjects of the country. There ſhall alſo be delivered them ſafe-conducts or paſſports for their free and ſafe paſſage from thence, and to return each one to his own country.

Art. XVII. In caſe the ſubjects or people of either party, with their ſhipping, whether public and of war, or private and of merchants, be forced through ſtreſs of weather, purſuit of pirates or enemies, or any other urgent neceſſity for ſeeking of ſhelter and harbour, to retreat and enter into any of the rivers, creeks, bays, ports, roads or ſhores, belonging to the other party, they ſhall be received with all humanity and kindneſs, and enjoy all friendly protection and help; and they ſhall be permitted to refreſh and provide themſelves at reaſonable rates with victuals, and all things needful for the ſuſtenance of their perſons, or reparation of their ſhips; and they ſhall no ways be detained or hindered from returning out of the ſaid ports or roads, but may remove and depart, when and whither they pleaſe, without any lett or hindrance.

Art.

Art. XVIII. For the better promoting of commerce on both ſides, it is agreed, that if a war ſhould break out between their High Mightineſſes the States General of the United Netherlands and the United States of America, there ſhall always be granted to the ſubjects on each ſide, the term of nine months, after the date of the rupture, or the proclamation of war, to the end that they may retire with their effects, and tranſport them where they pleaſe; which it ſhall be lawful for them to do, as well as to ſell or tranſport their effects and goods in all freedom, and without any hindrance, and without being able to proceed, during the ſaid term of nine months, to any arreſt of their effects, much leſs of their perſons; on the contrary, there ſhall be given them, for their veſſels and their effects which they would carry away, paſſports and ſafe-conducts for the neareſt ports of their reſpective countries, and for the time neceſſary for the voyage. And no prize, made at ſea, ſhall be adjudged lawful, at leaſt, if the declaration of war was not, or could not be known in the laſt port which the veſſel taken has quitted. But for whatever may have been taken from the ſubjects and inhabitants of either party, and for the offences which may have been given them in the interval of the ſaid terms, a complete ſatisfaction ſhall be given them.

Art. XIX. No ſubject of their High Mightineſſes the States General of the United Netherlands ſhall apply for, or take any commiſſion, or letters of marque, for arming any ſhip or ſhips to act as privateers againſt the ſaid United States of America, or any of them, or the ſubjects and inhabitants of the ſaid United States, or any of them, or againſt the property of the inhabitants of any of them, from any prince or ſtate with which the ſaid United States of America may happen to be at war: nor ſhall any ſubject or inhabitant of the ſaid United States of America, or any of them, apply for, or take any commiſſion, or letters of marque, for arming any ſhip or ſhips, to act as privateers againſt the High and Mighty Lords the States General of the United Netherlands, or againſt the ſubjects of their High Mightineſſes, or any of them, or againſt the property of any one of them, from any prince or ſtate with which their High Mightineſſes may be at war. And if any perſon of either nation ſhall take ſuch commiſſion, or letters of marque, he ſhall be puniſhed as a pirate.

Art. XX. If the veſſels of the ſubjects or inhabitants of one of the parties come upon any coaſt belonging to either of the ſaid allies, but not willing to enter into port, or being entered into port, and not willing

willing to unload their cargoes, or break bulk, or take in any cargo, they ſhall not be obliged to pay, neither for the veſſels, nor the cargoes, any duties of entry in or out, nor to render any account of their cargoes, at leaſt if there is not juſt cauſe to preſume, that they carry to an enemy merchandiſes of contraband.

Art. XXI. The two contracting parties grant to each other, mutually, the liberty of having, each in the ports of the other, conſuls, vice-conſuls, agents and commiſſaries of their own appointing, whoſe functions ſhall be regulated by particular agreements, whenever either party chuſes to make ſuch appointments.

Art. XXII. This treaty ſhall not be underſtood in any manner to derogate from the ninth, tenth, nineteenth and twenty-fourth articles of the treaty with France, as they were numbered in the ſame treaty concluded the 6th of February, 1778, and which make the articles ninth, tenth, ſeventeenth, and twenty-ſecond of the treaty of commerce now ſubſiſting between the United States of America and the crown of France: nor ſhall it hinder his Catholic Majeſty from acceding to that treaty, and enjoying the advantages of the ſaid four articles.

Art. XXIII. If at any time the United States of America ſhall judge neceſſary to commence negociations with the king or emperor of Morocco and Fez, and with the regencies of Algiers, Tunis or Tripoli, or with any of them, to obtain paſſports for the ſecurity of their navigation in the Mediterranean ſea, their High Mightineſſes promiſe, that upon the requiſition which the United States of America ſhall make of it, they will ſecond ſuch negociations in the moſt favourable manner, by means of their conſuls reſiding near the ſaid king, emperor, and regencies.

Art. XXIV. The liberty of navigation and commerce ſhall extend to all ſorts of merchandiſes, excepting only thoſe which are diſtinguiſhed under the name of contraband, or merchandiſes prohibited: and under this denomination of contraband, and merchandiſes prohibited, ſhall be comprehended only warlike ſtores and arms, as mortars, artillery, with their artifices and appurtenances, fuſils, piſtols, bombs, grenades, gunpowder, ſaltpetre, ſulphur, match, bullets and balls, pikes, ſabres, lances, halberts, caſques, cuiraſſes, and other ſorts of arms; as alſo, ſoldiers horſes, ſaddles, and furniture for horſes. All other effects and merchandiſes, not before ſpecified expreſsly, and even all ſorts of naval matters, however proper they may be for the conſtruction and equipment of veſſels of

war,

war, or for the manufacture of one or other ſort of machines of war, by land or ſea, ſhall not be judged contraband, neither by the letter, nor according to any pretended interpretation whatever, ought they, or can they be comprehended under the notion of effects prohibited or contraband: ſo that all effects and merchandiſes which are not expreſsly before named, may, without any exception, and in perfect liberty, be tranſported by the ſubjects and inhabitants of both allies, from and to places belonging to the enemy; excepting only, the places which at the ſame time ſhall be beſieged, blocked or inveſted; and thoſe places only ſhall be held for ſuch, which are ſurrounded nearly by ſome of the belligerent powers.

Art. XXV. To the end that all diſſenſion and quarrel may be avoided and prevented, it has been agreed, that in caſe one of the two parties happens to be at war, the veſſels belonging to the ſubjects or inhabitants of the other ally ſhall be provided with ſea-letters or paſſports, expreſſing the name, the property, and the burthen of the veſſel, as alſo the name of the place of abode of the maſter or commander of the ſaid veſſel; to the end that thereby it may appear, that the veſſel really and truly belongs to ſubjects or inhabitants of one of the parties; which paſſports ſhall be drawn and diſtributed according to the form annexed to this treaty. Each time that the veſſel ſhall return, ſhe ſhould have ſuch her paſſport renewed; or, at leaſt, they ought not to be of more ancient date than two years, before the veſſel has been returned to her own country. It has been alſo agreed, that ſuch veſſels being loaded, ought to be provided not only with the ſaid paſſports or ſea-letters, but alſo with a general paſſport, or with particular paſſports, or manifeſts, or other public documents, which are ordinarily given to veſſels outward bound, in the ports from whence the veſſels have ſet ſail in the laſt place, containing a ſpecification of the cargo, of the place from whence the veſſels have ſet ſail in the laſt place, containing a ſpecification of the cargo, of the place from whence the veſſel departed, and of that of her deſtination; or, inſtead of all theſe, with certificates from the magiſtrates, or governors of cities, places and colonies from whence the veſſel came, given in the uſual form, to the end that it may be known whether there are any effects prohibited or contraband on board the veſſels, and whether they are deſtined to be carried to an enemy's country or not. And in caſe any one judges proper to expreſs in the ſaid documents, the perſons to whom the effects belong,

he

he may do it freely, without, however, being bound to do it; and the omiſſion of ſuch expreſſion cannot, and ought not to cauſe a confiſcation.

Art. XXVI. If the veſſels of the ſaid ſubjects or inhabitants of either of the parties, ſailing along the coaſts, or on the high ſeas, are met by a veſſel of war, or privateer, or other armed veſſel of the other party; the ſaid veſſels of war, privateers or armed veſſels, for avoiding all diſorder, ſhall remain without the reach of cannon, but may ſend their boats on board the merchant veſſels which they ſhall meet in this manner, upon which they may not paſs more than two or three men, to whom the maſter or commander ſhall exhibit his paſſport, containing the property of the veſſel, according to the form annexed to this treaty: and the veſſel, after having exhibited ſuch a paſſport, ſea-letter, and other documents, ſhall be free to continue her voyage, ſo that it ſhall not be lawful to moleſt her, or ſearch her, in any manner, nor to give her chace, nor to force her to alter her courſe.

Art. XXVII. It ſhall be lawful for merchants, captains, and commanders of veſſels, whether public and of war, or private and of merchants, belonging to the ſaid United States of America, or any of them, or to their ſubjects and inhabitants, to take freely into their ſervice, and receive on board of their veſſels, in any port or place in the juriſdiction of their High Mightineſſes aforeſaid, ſeamen or others, natives or inhabitants of any of the ſaid States, upon ſuch conditions as they ſhall agree on, without being ſubject, for this, to any fine, penalty, puniſhment, proceſs or reprehenſion whatſoever.

And reciprocally, all merchants, captains and commanders, belonging to the ſaid United Netherlands, ſhall enjoy in all the ports and places under the obedience of the ſaid United States of America, the ſame privilege of engaging and receiving ſeamen or others, natives or inhabitants of any country of the domination of the ſaid States-General: provided, that neither on one ſide nor the other, they may not take into their ſervice ſuch of their countrymen who have already engaged in the ſervice of the other party contracting, whether in war or trade, and whether they meet them by land or ſea; at leaſt, if the captains or maſters under the command of whom ſuch perſons may be found, will not of their own conſent diſcharge them from their ſervice, upon pain of being otherwiſe treated and puniſhed as deſerters.

Art. XXVIII. The affair of the refraction ſhall be regulated in all equity and juſtice by the magiſtrates of cities reſpectively, where it ſhall be judged that there is any room to complain in this reſpect.

Art. XXIX. The preſent treaty ſhall be ratified and approved by their High Mightineſſes the States-General of the United Netherlands, and by the United States of America; and the acts of ratification ſhall be delivered, in good and due form, on one ſide and on the other, in the ſpace of ſix months, or ſooner, if poſſible, to be computed from the day of the ſignature.

In faith of which, we the deputies and plenipotentiaries of the Lords the States-General of the United Netherlands, and the miniſter plenipotentiary of the United States of America, in virtue of our reſpective authorities and full powers, have ſigned the preſent treaty, and appoſed thereto the ſeals of our arms.

Done at the Hague, the eighth of October, one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-two.

(L. S.) GEORGE VAN RANDWYCK,
(L. S.) B. V. SANTHEUVEL,
(L. S.) P. VAN BLEISWYK,
(L. S.) W. C. H. VAN LYNDEN,
(L. S.) D. J. VAN HEECKEREN,
(L. S.) JOAN VAN RUFFELER,
(L. S.) T. G. VAN DEDEM, (Tot den Gelder)
(L. S.) H. T. JASSENS,
(L. S.) JOHN ADAMS.

THE FORM of the Paſſport which ſhall be given to ſhips and veſſels, in conſequence of the twenty-fifth article of this treaty.

To all who ſhall ſee theſe preſents, greeting;

BE it known, that leave and permiſſion are hereby given to maſter or commander of the ſhip or veſſel called of the burthen of tons, or thereabouts, lying at preſent in the port or haven of bound for and laden with to depart and proceed with his ſaid ſhip or veſſel on his ſaid voyage, ſuch ſhip or

or veſſel having been viſited, and the ſaid maſter and commander having made oath before the proper officer, that the ſaid ſhip or veſſel belongs to one or more of the ſubjects, people or inhabitants of and to him or them only. In witneſs whereof we have ſubſcribed our names to theſe preſents, and affixed the ſeal of our arms thereto, and cauſed the ſame to be counterſigned by at this day of in the year of our Lord Chriſt

FORM of the Certificate which ſhall be given to ſhips or veſſels, in conſequence of the twenty-fifth article of this treaty.

WE magiſtrates or officers of the cuſtoms of the city or port of do certify and atteſt, that on the day of in the year of our Lord C. D. of perſonally appeared before us, and declared by ſolemn oath, that the ſhip or veſſel called of tons or thereabouts, whereof of is at preſent maſter or commander, does rightfully and properly belong to him or them only: that ſhe is now bound from the city or port of to the port of laden with goods and merchandiſes hereunder particularly deſcribed and enumerated, as follows:

In witneſs whereof we have ſigned this certificate, and ſealed it with the ſeal of our office, this day of in the year of our Lord Chriſt

FORM of the Sea-Letter.

MOST Serene, Serene, Moſt Puiſſant, Puiſſant, High, Illuſtrious, Noble, Honourable, Venerable, Wiſe and Prudent, Lords, Emperors, Kings, Republics, Princes, Dukes, Earls, Barons, Lords, Burgomaſters, Schepens, Counſellors, as alſo Judges, Officers, Juſticiaries and Regents of all the good cities and places, whether eccleſiaſtical or ſecular, who ſhall ſee theſe preſents, or hear them read.

We, Burgo-maſters and Regents of the city of make known, that the maſter of appearing before us, has declared upon oath, that the veſſel called of the burthen of about laſts, which he at preſent navigates, is of the United Provinces, and that no ſubjects of the enemy have any

part or portion therein, directly nor indirectly, so may God Almighty help him. And as we wish to see the said master prosper in his lawful affairs, our prayer is to all the before mentioned, and to each of them separately, where the said master shall arrive with his vessel and cargo, that they may please to receive the said master with goodness, and to treat him in a becoming manner, permitting him, upon the usual toll and expenses in passing and repassing, to pass, navigate, and frequent the ports, passes and territories, to the end to transact his business where and in what manner he shall judge proper: whereof we shall be willingly indebted.

In witness and for cause whereof, we affix hereto the seal of this city.

(In the margin.)

By ordinance of the High and Mighty Lords the States-General of the United Netherlands.

APPENDIX. No. VI.

TREATY OF AMITY AND COMMERCE

BETWEEN

HIS MAJESTY THE KING OF PRUSSIA, AND THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

HIS Majesty the King of Prussia, and the United States of America, desiring to fix, in a permanent and equitable manner, the rules to be observed in the intercourse and commerce they desire to establish between their respective countries, his Majesty and the United States have judged, that the said end cannot be better obtained than by taking the most perfect equality and reciprocity for the basis of their agreement.

With this view, his Majesty the King of Prussia has nominated and constituted, as his plenipotentiary, the Baron Frederick William de Thulemeier, his privy counsellor of embassy and envoy extraordinary, with their High Mightinesses the States-General of the United Netherlands: and the United States have, on their part, given full powers to John Adams, Esq. late one of their ministers plenipotentiary

tiary for negociating a peace, heretofore a delegate in Congreſs from the State of Maſſachuſetts, and chief juſtice of the ſame, and now miniſter plenipotentiary of the United States with his Britannic Majeſty; Dr. Benjamin Franklin, late miniſter plenipotentiary at the Court of Verſailles, and another of their miniſters plenipotentiary for negociating a peace; and Thomas Jefferſon, heretofore a delegate in Congreſs from the State of Virginia, and governor of the ſaid State, and now miniſter plenipotentiary of the United States at the Court of his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, which reſpective plenipotentiaries, after having exchanged their full powers, and on mature deliberation, have concluded, ſettled and ſigned the following articles:

Article I. There ſhall be a firm, inviolable and univerſal peace and ſincere friendſhip between his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia, his heirs, ſucceſſors and ſubjects, on the one part, and the United States of America and their citizens, on the other, without exceptions of perſons or places.

Art. II. The ſubjects of his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia may frequent all the coaſts and countries of the United States of America, and reſide and trade there in all ſorts of produce, manufactures and merchandiſe; and ſhall pay within the ſaid United States no other or greater duties, charges or fees whatſoever, than the moſt favoured nations are or ſhall be obliged to pay; and they ſhall enjoy all the rights, privileges, and exemptions in navigation and commerce, which the moſt favoured nation does or ſhall enjoy; ſubmitting themſelves, nevertheleſs, to the laws and uſages there eſtabliſhed, and to which are ſubmitted the citizens of the United States and the citizens and ſubjects of the moſt favoured nations.

Art. III. In like manner the citizens of the United States of America may frequent all the coaſts and countries of his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia, and reſide and trade there in all ſorts of produce, manufactures and merchandiſe, and ſhall pay in the dominions of his ſaid Majeſty, no other or greater duties, charges or fees whatſoever, than the moſt favoured nation is or ſhall be obliged to pay; and they ſhall enjoy all the rights, privileges, and exemptions in navigation and commerce, which the moſt favoured nation does or ſhall enjoy; ſubmitting themſelves nevertheleſs to the laws and uſages there eſtabliſhed, and to which are ſubmitted the ſubjects of his Majeſty the king of Pruſſia, and the ſubjects and citizens of the moſt favoured nations.

Art.

Art. IV. More eſpecially each party ſhall have a right to carry their own produce, manufactures and merchandiſe, in their own or any other veſſels, to any parts of the dominions of the other, where it ſhall be lawful for all the ſubjects or citizens of that other freely to purchaſe them; and thence to take the produce, manufactures and merchandiſe of the other, which all the ſaid citizens or ſubjects ſhall in like manner be free to ſell them, paying in both caſes ſuch duties, charges and fees only, as are or ſhall be paid by the moſt favoured nation. Nevertheleſs the King of Pruſſia and the United States, and each of them, reſerve to themſelves the right where any nation reſtrains the tranſportation of merchandiſe to the veſſels of the country of which it is the growth or manufacture, to eſtablih againſt ſuch nation retaliating regulations; and alſo the right to prohibit, in their reſpective countries, the importation and exportation of all merchandiſe whatſoever, when reaſons of ſtate ſhall require it. In this caſe, the ſubjects or citizens of either of the contracting parties ſhall not import nor export the merchandiſe prohibited by the other; but if one of the contracting parties permits any other nation to import or export the ſame merchandiſe, the citizens or ſubjects of the other ſhall immediately enjoy the ſame liberty.

Art. V. The merchants, commanders of veſſels, or other ſubjects or citizens of either party, ſhall not, within the ports or juriſdiction of the other, be forced to unload any ſort of merchandiſe into any other veſſels; nor to receive them into their own, nor to wait for their being loaded longer than they pleaſe.

Art. VI. That the veſſels of either party loading within the ports or juriſdiction of the other, may not be uſeleſsly haraſſed or detained, it is agreed, that all examinations of goods required by the laws, ſhall be made before they be laden on board the veſſel, and that there ſhall be no examination after; nor ſhall the veſſel be ſearched at any time, unleſs articles ſhall have been laden therein clandeſtinely and illegally; in which caſe the perſon by whoſe order they were carried on board, or who carried them without order, ſhall be liable to the laws of the land in which he is: but no other perſon ſhall be moleſted, nor ſhall any other goods, nor the veſſel, be ſeiſed or detained for that cauſe.

Art. VII. Each party ſhall endeavour, by all the means in their power, to protect and defend all veſſels and other effects belonging to the citizens or ſubjects of the other, which ſhall be within the

extent

extent of their juriſdiction, by ſea or by land; and ſhall uſe all their efforts to recover, and cauſe to be reſtored to their right owners, their veſſels and effects which ſhall be taken from them within the extent of their ſaid juriſdiction.

Art. VIII. The veſſels of the ſubjects or citizens of either party, coming on any coaſt belonging to the other, but not willing to enter into port, or being entered into port, and not willing to unload their cargoes or break bulk, ſhall have liberty to depart, and to purſue their voyage without moleſtation, and without being obliged to render account of their cargo, or to pay any duties, charges or fees whatſoever, except thoſe eſtabliſhed for veſſels entered into port, and appropriated to the maintenance of the port itſelf, or of other eſtabliſhments for the ſafety and convenience of navigators, which duties, charges and fees, ſhall be the ſame, and ſhall be paid on the ſame footing, as in the caſe of ſubjects or citizens of the country where they are eſtabliſhed.

Art. IX. When any veſſel of either party ſhall be wrecked, foundered, or otherwiſe damaged on the coaſts, or within the dominion of the other, their reſpective ſubjects or citizens ſhall receive, as well for themſelves as for their veſſels and effects, the ſame aſſiſtance which would be due to the inhabitants of the country where the damage happens, and ſhall pay the ſame charges and dues only as the ſaid inhabitants would be ſubject to pay in a like caſe; and if the operations of repair ſhall require that the whole or any part of their cargo be unladed, they ſhall pay no duties, charges or fees, on the part which they ſhall relade and carry away. The ancient and barbarous right to wrecks of the ſea ſhall be entirely aboliſhed with reſpect to the ſubjects or citizens of the two contracting parties.

Art. X. The citizens or ſubjects of each party ſhall have power to diſpoſe of their perſonal goods within the juriſdiction of the other, by teſtament, donation or otherwiſe; and their repreſentatives, being ſubjects or citizens of the other party, ſhall ſucceed to their ſaid perſonal goods, whether by teſtament or *ab inteſtato*, and may take poſſeſſion thereof, either by themſelves, or by others acting for them, and diſpoſe of the ſame at their will, paying ſuch duties only as the inhabitants of the country, wherein the ſaid goods are, ſhall be ſubject to pay in like caſes: and in caſe of the abſence of the repreſentative, ſuch care ſhall be taken of the ſaid goods, and for ſo long a time, as would be taken of the goods of a native in like caſe, until the lawful owner may take meaſures for receiving them. And if queſtion

ſhall

ſhall ariſe among ſeveral claimants, to which of them the ſaid goods belong, the ſame ſhall be decided finally by the laws and judges of the land wherein the ſaid goods are. And where, on the death of any perſon holding real eſtate within the territories of the one party, ſuch real eſtate would, by the laws of the land, deſcend on a citizen or ſubject of the other, were he not diſqualified by alienage, ſuch ſubject ſhall be allowed a reaſonable time to ſell the ſame, and to withdraw the proceeds without moleſtation, and exempt from all rights of detraction on the part of the government of the reſpective States. But this article ſhall not derogate in any manner from the force of the laws already publiſhed, or hereafter to be publiſhed, by his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia, to prevent the emigration of his ſubjects.

Art. XI. The moſt perfect freedom of conſcience, and of worſhip, is granted to the citizens or ſubjects of either party, within the juriſdiction of the other, without being liable to moleſtation in that reſpect, for any cauſe other than an inſult on the religion of others. Moreover, when the ſubjects or citizens of the one party ſhall die within the juriſdiction of the other, their bodies ſhall be buried in the uſual burying grounds, or other decent and ſuitable places, and ſhall be protected from violation or diſturbance.

Art. XII. If one of the contracting parties ſhould be engaged in war with any other power, the free intercourſe and commerce of the ſubjects or citizens of the party remaining neuter with the belligerent powers ſhall not be interrupted. On the contrary, in that caſe, as in full peace, the veſſels of the neutral party may navigate freely to and from the ports, and on the coaſts of the belligerent parties, free veſſels making free goods; inſomuch that all things ſhall be adjudged free, which ſhall be on board any veſſel belonging to the neutral party, although ſuch things belong to an enemy of the other: and the ſame freedom ſhall be extended to perſons who ſhall be on board a free veſſel, although they ſhould be enemies to the other party, unleſs they be ſoldiers in the actual ſervice of ſuch enemy.

Art. XIII. And in the ſame caſe, of one of the contracting parties being engaged in war with any other power, to prevent all the difficulties and miſunderſtandings that uſually ariſe reſpecting the merchandiſe heretofore called contraband, ſuch as arms, ammunition and military ſtores of every kind, no ſuch articles, carried in the veſſels, or by the ſubjects or citizens of one of the parties, to the

enemies of the other, ſhall be deemed contraband, ſo as to induce confiſcation or condemnation and a loſs of property to individuals. Nevertheleſs, it ſhall be lawful to ſtop ſuch veſſels and articles, and to detain them for ſuch length of time as the captors may think neceſſary, to prevent the inconvenience or damage that might enſue from their proceeding, paying, however, a reaſonable compenſation for the loſs ſuch arreſt ſhall occaſion to the proprietors: and it ſhall farther be allowed to uſe in the ſervice of the captors, the whole or any part of the military ſtores ſo detained, paying the owners the full value of the ſame, to be aſcertained by the current price at the place of its deſtination. But in the caſe ſuppoſed, of a veſſel ſtopped for articles heretofore deemed contraband, if the maſter of the veſſel ſtopped will deliver out the goods ſuppoſed to be of contraband nature, he ſhall be admitted to do it; and the veſſel ſhall not in that caſe be carried into any port, nor further detained, but ſhall be allowed to proceed on her voyage.

XIV. And in the ſame caſe, where one of the parties is engaged in war with another power, that the veſſels of the neutral party may be readily and certainly known, it is agreed, that they ſhall be provided with ſea letters, or paſſports, which ſhall expreſs the name, the property, and burden of the veſſel, as alſo the name and dwelling of the maſter; which paſſports ſhall be made out in good and due forms, to be ſettled by conventions between the parties, whenever occaſions ſhall require; ſhall be renewed as often as the veſſel ſhall return into port; and ſhall be exhibited, whenever required, as well in the open ſea as in port. But if the ſaid veſſel be under convoy of one or more veſſels of war, belonging to the neutral party, the ſimple declaration of the officer commanding the convoy, that the ſaid veſſel belongs to the party of which he is, ſhall be conſidered as eſtabliſhing the fact, and ſhall relieve both parties from the trouble of further examination.

XV. And to prevent entirely all diſorder and violence in ſuch caſes, it is ſtipulated, that when the veſſels of the neutral party, ſailing without convoy, ſhall be met by any veſſel of war, public or private, of the other party, ſuch veſſel of war ſhall not approach within cannot ſhot of the ſaid neutral veſſel, nor ſend more than two or three men in their boat on board the ſame, to examine her ſea letters or paſſports. And all perſons belonging to any veſſel of war, public or private, who ſhall moleſt or injure, in any manner whatever, the people, veſſels, or effects of the other party, ſhall be re-

ſponſible in their perſons and property, for damages and intereſt; ſufficient ſecurity for which ſhall be given by all commanders of private armed veſſels, before they are commiſſioned.

XVI. It is agreed, that the ſubjects or citizens of each of the contracting parties, their veſſels and effects, ſhall not be liable to any embargo or detention on the part of the other, for any military expedition, or other public or private purpoſe whatſoever. And in all caſes of ſeizure, detention, or arreſt, for debts contracted, or offences committed by any citizen or ſubject of the one party, within the juriſdiction of the other, the ſame ſhall be made and proſecuted by order and authority of law only, and according to the regular courſe of proceedings uſual in ſuch caſes.

XVII. If any veſſel or effects of the neutral power be taken by an enemy of the other, or by a pirate, and retaken by the other, they ſhall be brought into ſome port of one of the parties, and delivered into the cuſtody of the officers of that port, in order to be reſtored entire to the true proprietor, as ſoon as due proof ſhall be made concerning the property thereof.

XVIII. If the citizens or ſubjects of either party, in danger from tempeſts, pirates, enemies, or other accident, ſhall take refuge, with their veſſels or effects, within the harbours or juriſdiction of the other, they ſhall be received, protected, and treated with humanity and kindneſs, and ſhall be permitted to furniſh themſelves at reaſonable prices with all refreſhments, proviſions, and other things neceſſary for their ſuſtenance, health, and accommodation, and for the repair of their veſſels.

XIX. The veſſels of war, public and private, of both parties, ſhall carry freely whereſoever they pleaſe, the veſſels and effects taken from their enemies, without being obliged to pay any duties, charges, or fees, to officers of admiralty, of the cuſtoms, or any others; nor ſhall ſuch prizes be arreſted, ſearched, or put under legal proceſs, when they come to, and enter the ports of the other party; but may freely be carried out again at any time, by their captors, to the places expreſſed in their commiſſions, which the commanding officer of ſuch veſſels ſhall be obliged to ſhew. But no veſſel which ſhall have made prizes on the ſubjects of his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty the King of France, ſhall have a right of aſylum in the ports or havens of the ſaid United States: and if any ſuch be forced therein, by tempeſt or dangers of the ſea, they ſhall be obliged depart as ſoon as poſſible, according

cording to the tenor of the treaties exiſting between his ſaid Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty and the ſaid United States.

XX. No citizen or ſubject of either of the contracting parties ſhall take from any power with which the other may be at war, any commiſſion or letter of marque for arming any veſſel to act as privateer againſt the other, on pain of being puniſhed as a pirate; nor ſhall either party hire, lend, or give any part of their naval or military force to the enemy of the other, to aid them offenſively or defenſively againſt that other.

XXI. If the two contracting parties ſhould be engaged in a war againſt a common enemy, the following points ſhall be obſerved between them:

1ſt. If a veſſel of one of the parties, retaken by a privateer of the other, ſhall not have been in poſſeſſion of the enemy more than twenty-four hours, ſhe ſhall be reſtored to the firſt owner for one third of the value of the veſſel and cargo: but if ſhe ſhall have been more than twenty-four hours in the poſſeſſion of the enemy, ſhe ſhall belong wholly to the recaptor. 2d. If in the ſame caſe the recapture were by a public veſſel of war of one party, reſtitution ſhall be made to the owner for one thirtieth part of the value of the veſſel and cargo, if ſhe ſhall not have been in the poſſeſſion of the enemy more than twenty-four hours, and one tenth of the ſaid value where ſhe ſhall have been longer, which ſums ſhall be diſtributed in gratuities to the recaptors. 3d. The reſtitution in the caſes aforeſaid, ſhall be after due proof of property, and ſurety given for the part to which the recaptors are entitled. 4th. The veſſels of war, public and private, of the two parties, ſhall be reciprocally admitted with their prizes into the reſpective ports of each; but the ſaid prizes ſhall not be diſcharged nor ſold there, until their legality ſhall have been decided, according to the laws and regulations of the ſtate to which the captor belongs, but by the judicatures of the place into which the prize ſhall have been conducted. 5th. It ſhall be free to each party to make ſuch regulations as they ſhall judge neceſſary, for the conduct of their reſpective veſſels of war, public and private, relative to the veſſels which they ſhall take and carry into the ports of the two parties.

XXII. Where the parties ſhall have a common enemy, or ſhall both be neutral, the veſſels of war of each ſhall upon all occaſions take under their protection the veſſels of the other going the ſame courſe, and ſhall defend ſuch veſſels as long as they hold the ſame

courſe, againſt all force and violence, in the ſame manner as they ought to protect and defend veſſels belonging to the party of which they are.

XXIII. If war ſhould ariſe between the two contracting parties, the merchants of either country, then reſiding in the other, ſhall be allowed to remain nine months to collect their debts, and ſettle their affairs, and may depart freely, carrying off all their effects, without moleſtation or hindrance: and all women and children, ſcholars of every faculty, cultivators of the earth, artiſans, manufacturers, and fiſhermen, unarmed and inhabiting unfortified towns, villages or places, and in general all others, whoſe occupations are for the common ſubſiſtence and benefit of mankind, ſhall be allowed to continue their reſpective employments, and ſhall not be moleſted in their perſons; nor ſhall their houſes or goods be burnt, or otherwiſe deſtroyed, nor their fields waſted by the armed force of the enemy, into whoſe power, by the events of war, they may happen to fall: but if any thing be neceſſary to be taken from them for the uſe of ſuch armed force, the ſame ſhall be paid for at a reaſonable price. And all merchant and trading veſſels employed in exchanging the products of different places, and thereby rendering the neceſſaries, conveniencies, and comforts of human life more eaſy to be obtained, and more general, ſhall be allowed to paſs free and unmoleſted: and neither of the contracting parties ſhall grant or iſſue any commiſſion to any private armed veſſels, empowering them to take or deſtroy ſuch trading veſſels, or interrupt ſuch commerce.

XXIV. And to prevent the deſtruction of priſoners of war, by ſending them into diſtant and inclement countries, or by crowding them in cloſe and noxious places, the two contracting parties ſolemnly pledge themſelves to each other, and to the world, that they will not adopt any ſuch practice; that neither will ſend the priſoners whom they may take from the other, into the Eaſt-Indies, or any other parts of Aſia or Africa, but that they ſhall be placed in ſome part of their dominions in Europe or America, in wholeſome ſituations; that they ſhall not be confined in dungeons, priſon ſhips, nor priſons, nor be put into irons, nor bound, nor otherwiſe reſtrained in the uſe of their limbs; that the officers ſhall be enlarged on their paroles within convenient diſtricts, and have comfortable quarters; and the common men be diſpoſed in cantonments, open and extenſive enough for air and exerciſe, and lodged in barracks as roomy and as good as are provided by the party in whoſe power they are, for their

own troops; that the officers ſhall alſo be daily furniſhed by the party in whoſe power they are, with as many rations, and of the ſame articles and quality as are allowed by them, either in kind or commutation, to officers of equal rank in their own army; and all others ſhall be daily furniſhed by them with ſuch rations as they allow to a common ſoldier in their own ſervice, the value whereof ſhall be paid by the other party, on mutual adjuſtment of accounts for the ſuſtenance of priſoners at the cloſe of the war: and the ſaid accounts ſhall not be mingled with, or ſet off againſt any others, nor the balances due on them be withheld as a ſatisfaction or repriſal for any other article, or for any other cauſe, real or pretended, whatever; that each party ſhall be allowed to keep a commiſſary of priſoners of their own appointment, with every ſeparate cantonment of priſoners in poſſeſſion of the other; which commiſſary ſhall ſee the priſoners as often as he pleaſes, ſhall be allowed to receive and diſtribute whatever comforts may be ſent to them by their friends, and ſhall be free to make his reports in open letters to thoſe who employ him: but if any officer ſhall break his parole, or any other priſoner ſhall eſcape from the limits of his cantonment, after they ſhall have been deſignated to him, ſuch individual officer or other priſoner ſhall forfeit ſo much of the benefit of this article, as provides for his enlargement on parole or cantonment. And it is declared, that neither the pretence that war diſſolves all treaties, nor any other whatever, ſhall be conſidered as annulling or ſuſpending this and the next preceding article; but, on the contrary, that the ſtate of war is preciſely that for which they are provided, and during which they are to be as ſacredly obſerved as the moſt acknowledged articles in the law of nature or nations.

XXV. The two contracting parties grant to each other the liberty of having each in the ports of the other, conſuls, vice-conſuls, agents, and commiſſaries of their own appointment, whoſe functions ſhall be regulated by particular agreement, whenever either party ſhall chooſe to make ſuch appointment; but if any ſuch conſuls ſhall exerciſe commerce, they ſhall be ſubmitted to the ſame laws and uſages to which the private individuals of their nation are ſubmitted in the ſame place.

XXVI. If either party ſhall hereafter grant to any other nation, any particular favour in navigation or commerce, it ſhall immediately become common to the other party—freely, where it is freely granted, to ſuch other nation—or on yielding the compenſation, where ſuch nation does the ſame.

XXVII. His Majeſty the King of Pruſſia, and the United States of America, agree that this treaty ſhall be in force during the term of ten years from the exchange of ratifications: and if the expiration of that term ſhould happen during the courſe of a war between them, then the articles before provided for the regulation of their conduct during ſuch a war, ſhall continue in force until the concluſion of the treaty which ſhall re-eſtabliſh peace; and that this treaty ſhall be ratified on both ſides, and the ratifications exchanged within one year from the day of its ſignature.

In teſtimony whereof, the plenipotentiaries before-mentioned have hereto ſubſcribed their names and affixed their ſeals, at the places of their reſpective reſidence, and at the dates expreſſed under their ſeveral ſignatures.

F. G. de Thulemier, à la Hague, le 10 Septembre, 1785. (L. S.)

(L. S.)	(L. S.)	(L. S.)
T. JEFFERSON.	B. FRANKLIN.	J. ADAMS.
Paris, July 28, 1785.	Paſſy, July 9, 1785.	London, Aug. 5, 1785.

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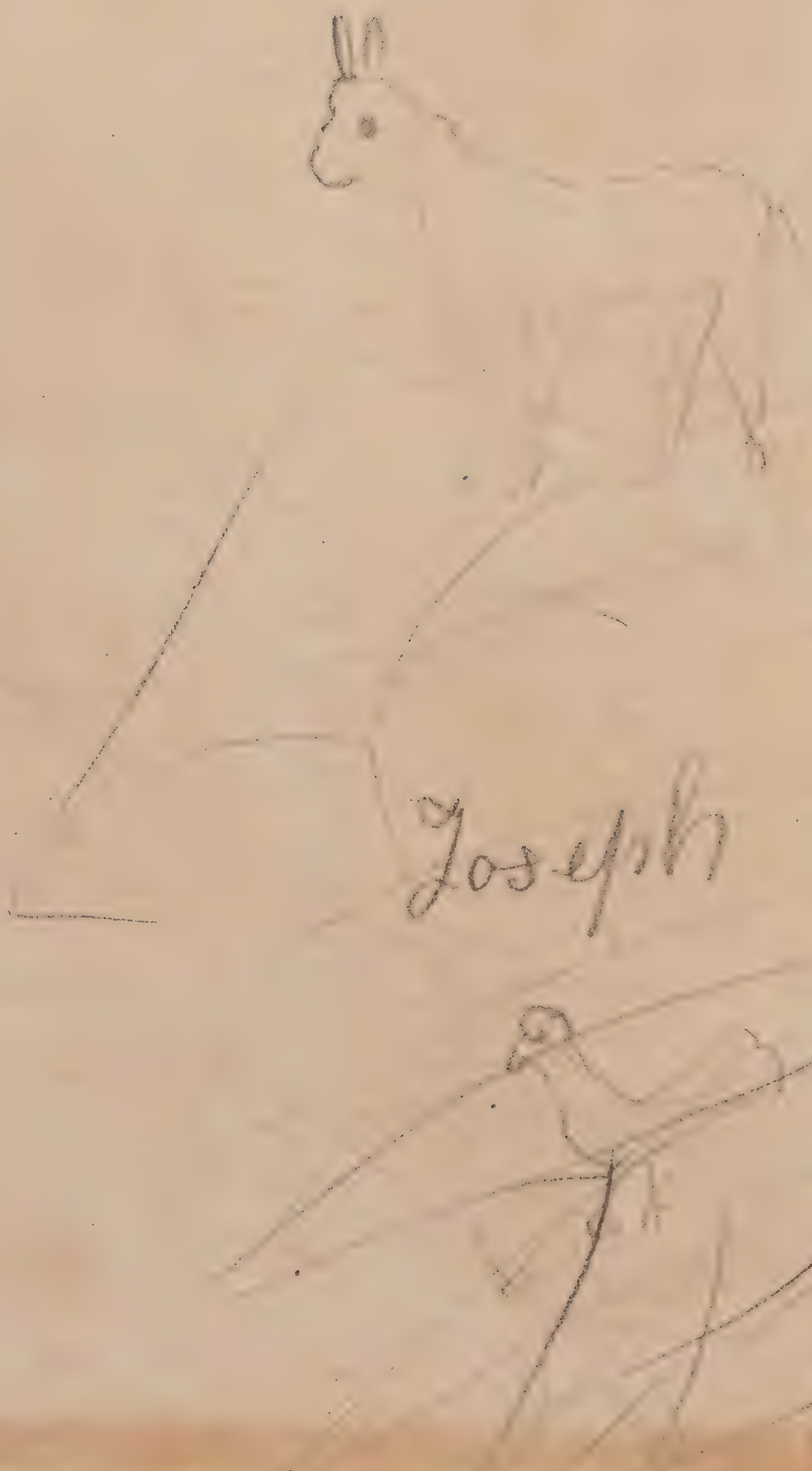
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